

# The Social Studies

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*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

April, 1937

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# The Social Studies

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

VOLUME XXVIII, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1937

## Education for Democracy

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*Richmond Hill High School, New York City*

### I

After a decade of teaching American history by partial use of a modified scientific method, the writer is prepared to incorporate his experiences into a composite description. This may suggest one way in which ideals such as those presented in the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association may be realized.

Professor Beard has pointed out in another volume of the report of the Commission on the Social Studies that if we are to achieve the ideals of democracy, the scientific method must be used, together with an ethical purpose, in order to create "rich and many-sided personalities." While no complete definition of democracy, or any exposition of our failure to achieve much of it institutionally or personally in our individual psychologies is possible here because of the exigencies of space, still all this may be apparent from the general tenor and scope of this plea for education.

It may be well, however, to call attention to the fact that we are faced at present not so much with a problem of collectivizing our economic system of production, as with a problem of instituting collective or democratic purposes and controls. For it should be obvious that we already have a collective economic system, owing to changes of the past thousand years or more. These have brought about production for the market by a specialization of labor in countries and between them, by a division of labor, by production en masse, and by the concentration and centralization of capital. After all, men do work together. The question remains whether or not they should work for each other under mutual democratic con-

trols. Perhaps the democratization of our economic system will be the chief means of realizing democracy and of providing a large measure of social salvation.

Catastrophic changes in society seem likely to ensue from injustices within society, from wars, from depressions, from unemployment, from violence accidentally occurring in efforts for social change and from psychological maladjustments arising from the lack of satisfactions and security under the above conditions, or from the wrong reactions to situations.

Education, and some use of history in any or all of the social sciences, should serve to aid in the development of the social intelligence necessary for awareness of social problems, their catastrophic implications and their possible solutions. The conventional teaching of history does not aid such a program for two reasons at least. First, not much of what is taught in school is accurate<sup>1</sup> or thorough; and, second, schools afford little training in the methods of the scientific historian, the method of scientific investigations, verification and suspended judgment. The teaching of realistic history by a modified scientific technique is undoubtedly one means by which to create highly developed social intelligence and democratic attitudes.

In following the writer's description of the method used, several considerations should be kept in mind. Although emphasis may be placed upon economic facts, no sole reliance upon an economic interpretation of history or human behavior is intended, as will be observed from references to the collective psychological interpretation. When mention is made of developing social intelligence no invidious distinction is meant with regard to the many children who fail

in school. These failures in many cases have been misunderstood and mistreated. Many are as capable as the supposedly more intelligent people. The method as described here is intended for use in schools as they are. However, a better use of the scientific method and a better means of educating in accord with the principles of mental hygiene will probably occur when many conventional school practices are abandoned. New reading materials, flexible intensive curricula, activity programs and methods, as well as the use of diverse data instead of the finished conclusions of a single text<sup>2</sup> will be in order to carry out fully the ideas and ideals presented in the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association.

Despite the limitations of many of our conventional practices, especially that of a rigid extensive curriculum and uniform Regents' or college entrance examinations, much can be done to achieve the best objectives through the use of the suggested modified scientific method. That the above do constitute limitations is evidenced partly by the fact that the composite description which follows can be used only in one term and on few topics of American history. The necessity to "cover" certain topics in preparation for the Regents' examination always forced the writer to abandon his method in the last half of the first term and to discontinue it altogether in the second. This will be alluded to more in detail below. Moreover, if the social sciences are to make for psychological adjustment, i.e., develop "rich and many-sided personalities," the method of presentation of materials, of instruction and student activities must adjust in the very process of education. This aspect of the problem will be adverted to in Part III in consideration of objections made by colleagues to the writer's technique.

## II

The modified scientific method herein described may be briefly characterized as (1) A recall of pupil knowledge of the history learned in elementary school; (2) the critical evaluation of the same by socratic questioning to test the accuracy of the historical account, the reliability of the authority therefor, and the ethical soundness of the emotionalized attitudes derived from earlier instruction; (3) reference to, and study of the high school text with critical appraisal of its accuracy and its reliability as an authority; (4) some comparative training in thinking, in the use of sources, or standard secondary accounts based upon them, and a critical evaluation of sources and secondary authorities such as Beard, McMaster, Channing, and others.

One should utilize this procedure the very first day of the first term of the course by ascertaining student

knowledge and opinions concerning American history. Direct the students without explanation to write short statements on a number of major topics in American history as recalled from their elementary school experience. These should include the reasons for the voyage of Columbus, the settling of Jamestown, the introduction of Negro slavery, the Revolution, the Constitution, the Lewis and Clark expedition, the War of 1812 and the Civil War. It is advisable to require the writing of answers to all of these topics at once before any examination is made of any one of them. Any critical teaching, or socratic questioning, on one viewpoint, may cause a lack of response to others. A quick inspection during the written exercise will reveal uniform information and attitudes on all the topics. Each student will, by the nature of the responses, reveal an education in a particular kind of functional history: an uncritical acceptance of the status quo, of national capitalism, of war and of historical causation. Student answers in regard to the latter, as well as replies to questions, will reveal a belief that things happen because of accidental changes made by good and bad men, and nations.

On the second day of the term have sufficient oral answers made on the topic of Columbus to permit class members to discover the uniformity of belief. They will agree that Columbus made his voyage in order to discover new trade routes to India since the Turks had blocked the old ones. By socratic methods and by source references the teacher should lead the class to recognize the inaccuracies of this story. First, a study of their belief in contrast to that of the text account should be made. Modern texts probably will be silent on the rôle of the Turks, or on the effect of the fall of Constantinople on the routes. This approach will occasion surprise among the students. To support the socratic questioning at this point, supply each student with a mimeographed copy, in condensed form, of Lybyer's monograph on the Turks.<sup>3</sup> Two or three class periods will be necessary for this study showing that the Turks did not control the main oriental trade routes until 1516, and that if they had done so and had blocked the routes, the ensuing shortage of goods would have caused a rise in prices. However, prices did not rise after 1453 to 1492 above the average of the previous three centuries. Thus the Turks could not have been the cause for the Columbian voyage. To eliminate further the Turks, and to teach a more realistic conception of the reasons for the change in trade routes, one should prepare a summary of Lane's article on Venetian shipping. Lane shows that the Columbian and other discoveries had but a partial rôle in the decline of the Venetian commerce and the Mediterranean-Oriental trade. Revolutionary changes in defense and rigging, together with the exhaustion of the Italian oak for-

ests, combined to take from Venice its monopoly of the eastern spice trade.<sup>4</sup> Two days at least should be taken for the study of this condensed mimeographed summary of Lane's article. This type of lesson introduces questions as to the validity of racial or national prejudices. Students quickly grasp the point that a dislike or hatred of the Turks was based upon incorrect premises. It is not contended, of course, that more tolerant attitudes are developed by one lesson alone, but a repetition on similar topics involving other peoples will even in one term greatly dispel much national prejudice.

Students will then ask, when the Turk has been removed as a causative agent for the voyages, what the reasons were that impelled Columbus and what was the purpose of his first voyage? They should then be asked to form some opinion from the source materials. Extracts from the diary of Columbus and an abridged copy of his contract with the Spanish sovereigns should then be used. If possible, or if desired, modern texts which ignore either or both sources, or which quote from one only, should in some form be brought to the attention of the class. These should be examined critically along with the source material. The lack of use, or the incorrect interpretation of these sources by textbook writers will afford worth-while training for students in regard to the need for critical objective attitudes to the printed page. Both sources should be taught critically in regard to their reliability, meaning and value as evidence. Since the diary professes a religious motive the claim of a voyage to India for a commercial purpose is immediately suspected. However, the religious motive seems questionable too, since for three centuries the Papacy had declined to send religious missions at the request of the Great Khan. Students may be asked to reflect further upon the audacity of Catholic sovereigns, who, loyal to the Papacy, undertook such an alleged mission without Papal approval, and according to Thatcher, without any religious authority, or even person among the crew. As for the contract, the chief question raised should be one designed to test the reliability of the 1496 copy of the contract. Is it a bona fide copy of an actual contract? If so, then the voyage was purely a commercial one, intended to seek profit by trade with new islands and a new mainland in the Atlantic. The quest for India, along with the Turks, would thus be removed from the Columbian legend.

It might serve purposes of instruction better to conclude with the observation that no one really knows actually what was the chief purpose of the voyage. In any event, with or without such a conclusion the students will have been introduced by the medium of a non-controversial topic to the habit of critical evaluation of what they read and what they are asked to believe, and the necessity of seeking re-

liable sources for their information and belief. This is a tremendously new attitude for students to acquire, free from present political and economic biases, even if eight to ten days of the term may have passed. Unless one is under pressure to cover ground for the Regents' examination the time spent need not be begrudged.

It may be objected that such training in history should be given on some vitally more important topic than Columbus and on one more directly connected with a contemporary social problem. It was the writer's experience that it was more difficult and dangerous to teach critically the Constitution, its historical background and its relation to modern times without some preliminary education on a non-controversial topic. As he eliminated a lengthy presentation on Columbus and other topics prior to the making of the Constitution, at the insistence of a supervisor who wanted closer adherence to the conventional curriculum "for the Regents," he found more of his students hostile and unresponsive as he taught the revised scholarship findings on the Revolution, the Constitution and other topics. At the same time, other interests in and out of school increased their opposition to his teaching. For these and other reasons he feels that a lengthy preparatory period is necessary. Moreover, there is no reason to eliminate such a topic as that of Columbus, save to gain time for the Regents' examination. This raises the pertinent question as to whether we should teach information for the examination, or teach for the better accepted objectives of democratic attitudes and scientific thinking. Then too, there most certainly is pertinent economic information and implications in the story of Columbus. It did mark the initial enterprise of expanding European imperialism.

Naturally, after many days of such critical teaching on Columbus, students will wish to know more as to the precise meaning of sources, how to find them, and how to criticize them for reliability. To meet this need one can write his own summary on historical criticism, present it in mimeographed form, and teach it in one period. However, it probably would serve educational purposes better if each student were given Chapter I, "What Is History," from Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925). This chapter, as experience showed, can easily be comprehended in two or three lessons if some time and energy is spent in teaching it by means of a guidance outline and direct study questions.

On concluding the study of sources a similar critical examination of beliefs in regard to colonization is in order, using the story of Jamestown as a type. By citations from E. P. Cheyney, *European Background of American History* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1904), pp. 124-152, it can be shown that other



explorations and colonizations were made by corporations seeking profits. This should be submitted along with other material after the students are asked to recall their belief as to the purpose of the founding of the colony at Jamestown. They will usually declare that it was founded as a communistic experiment, or that it failed at first because it was such.

As a first step in a critical evaluation of this belief suggest that the pupils study the school text. This may confirm the earlier impression, ignore the matter altogether, or correctly state that it was founded by a capitalistic corporation in search of profits. A second step will be to present the student with such material as the letters and charters of the company available in such a collection of source material as A. B. Hart, *American History Told By Contemporaries* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1906). A comparative study of accounts from leading secondary authorities will afford a means of teaching suspended judgment in regard to "authoritative" accounts. Students should be asked to state which account is the best and why; which is based on the sources and correctly drawn. For such a purpose one should use George Bancroft, *History of the United States* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1885), vol. 1, chaps. 6, 7; Edward Channing, *History of the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926); C. A. and M. R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), or any other similar standard works. If during the lessons on Jamestown any illusion is made by students to current controversies over socialization there should be full and free discussion, including a reference to the similarity between the London Company at Jamestown and modern corporations which send their capital and employees overseas to Africa and China.

The discussion on student answers on the topic of the Negro will reveal the uniform belief that "Negroes were used to grow cotton since they could stand the heat better than white men." Evidence contrary to this belief may be obtained from government statistics on the production and export of tobacco and cotton. Evidence may be drawn from books by Channing and Beard already mentioned and by other standard authorities such as T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929); J. B. McMaster, *History of the People of the United States* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1915); G. Callender, *Selections from the Economic History of the United States, 1760-1860* (New York: Ginn and Company, 1909), and others. Differences in the accounts, either in use of the original source material, or omission of certain details based on them, will aid in part in conveying the idea of critical attitudes toward what one reads. The facts in this study will show that white indentured servants

were chiefly used during the seventeenth century; Negroes were a negligible factor until after the English broke down the Dutch and Spanish slave trade monopoly; tobacco and not cotton was the chief crop grown on seventeenth-century southern plantations; cotton was not grown commercially as a permanent enterprise until after 1784.

The effect upon the students is obvious. They will be astounded by this time to know that they have learned so much that is not true. The historical facts will seriously challenge and contradict their naïve biological and anthropological views. Four or five lessons will be necessary if the students are to read diverse material and draw their own conclusions, although if the teacher does all the work, the whole lesson can be covered in one class period as described elsewhere.<sup>5</sup>

More direct social implications of present day value in regard to an understanding of the economic order can be developed if two or three days are devoted to teaching the reasons for white indentured and Negro slave labor in the early colonies. It can be shown that to accumulate profits, to create and maintain stable capital and realty values it was necessary to have forced labor. The abundance of new land, free to squatters, would have drawn all population to it and depopulated the seacoast regions to a great extent. There would have been few workers and few land-buyers otherwise. Not only forced labor, but land-distribution restrictions aided in creating and maintaining a laboring population dependent for employment upon landowners and other capitalists.<sup>6</sup> The dependent "free" laboring class was "naturally" created in part by a combination of circumstances relating to the failure of many white indentured servants to take up the land legally assigned to them on redemption.<sup>7</sup> In addition, summaries of Benton's reply to Foote's resolution in 1830 regarding surveys of western lands will show in one respect how the dependent laboring class was augmented under the Constitution. These three references can be briefly summarized and taught in one period. It is doubtful, however, as Montaigne said, since the teacher would do most of the work, if this "thundering in our [pupils'] ears, as if pouring into a funnel" is as valuable as more thorough pupil research into the materials cited, even though five lesson periods might be required. It is naturally slower and less content is covered for the Regents' examinations. But anything which is worth while takes time and serves to give some practice "in setting student-understanding to work."<sup>8</sup>

All this previous work will have served to prepare better the students for a critical re-evaluation of such a major topic as the Revolution. It is doubtful, as long as Regents' and college entrance examinations set the pace, whether other topics may be studied critically, if



at all, prior to that of the Revolution. All that one can do, after the foregoing introductory lessons have been critically taught, is to give one lesson in explanation of the British-French imperialist rivalry for North America. It is regrettable to exclude the story of colonial culture, religion and other social factors. But this must be done to provide time for teaching something concerning the social, political, economic and military history from 1776 to 1865 or later, in the first term's work. A well balanced course should include, in addition to critical problem teaching, something of an appreciative nature.

On examining student belief as to the causes of the Revolution it will be found that all conceive it as a political struggle against wicked British rule, against "taxation without representation." A study of the text over a course of four or five days will confirm this impression, even if the latest text is used. The inadequacy of the latter,<sup>9</sup> as well as the incorrectness of popular belief concerning the Revolution, can be shown by the use of material obtained from the following sources: (1) The struggle before the Revolution of the poor in the woods and on the small farms against the rich on the seacoast over unjust taxes, land speculation and representation. To show that the mass of American people were economically exploited and ruled by a form of "taxation without representation" by their own native-born American ruling class one can quote from such a work as that of C. H. Ambler, *Sectionalism in Virginia* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1910). Force can be given to this point of unjust representation by assigning students to report on the extent today of minority rural district control in state legislatures.<sup>10</sup> Thus urban working-class elements, though in the majority, are kept in control. A brief summary of this pre-Revolutionary injustice to the majority of settlers in each colony is obtainable from H. U. Faulkner, *American Economic History* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935). This alone would take at least two periods to teach. Material taken from Ambler's book, and from those on South and North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, by Schaper, Bassett and Lincoln, would take several more days depending upon the amount of the extracts, or the lengths of the summaries. (2) A. M. Schlesinger, *Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1917), provides, of course, the definitive account of the rôle of profits in guiding mercantile opposition to British imperialism and its leadership in stirring up colonial public opinion against taxes. This book may be summarized briefly in two or more pages, but the best educational practice of deep experiential activities requires a longer summary. The writer for several terms used and mimeographed for each student a two page single-spaced summary of the book with explicit reference to chap-

ters six and seven. These two chapters show that a desire to maintain a capitalist entity and the expectancy of future profits motivated the merchants in their opposition to the Tea Act and the tea taxes, rather than a love of political liberty or principle. In addition, to support Schlesinger's contention that the merchants willingly paid taxes on their imports, the writer used the statistics from the British customs rolls mentioned by Schlesinger as cited by Edward Channing (Vol. III, pp. 90, 128). If one uses these two chapters in their entirety, they should not be taught as intensively as we are wont to teach a text. However, they can be easily comprehended if taught with study guide questions in three periods devoted to discussions and reading, and in three homework assignments.

The foregoing material, showing that political power for economic profit underlay the Revolution, may be supplemented and adduced for land-speculators by summarizing data taken from the writings of Alvord, Harrell, Adams, and others mentioned by the writer in an article in *The Historical Outlook*, January 1933. This article was originally written for use in the writer's classes. Since the data placed much stress upon the economic-profit motives and the struggle for political power to validate land titles as the chief causes of the Revolution, it would be appropriate to devote at least one lesson to the collective psychological interpretation of history and human behavior. This should aid in creating rational perspectives.

On the conclusions of these lessons on the Revolution, which will have taken two to three weeks at least, it will be desirable to introduce variations in procedure and purpose. Several lessons should be devoted to an appreciative account of the basic principles of democracy in the Declaration of Independence. In the ensuing discussion one can stress the need of a democratic mind-set or psychology as a prerequisite to social, political and economic democracy.

In teaching the Constitution the students will reiterate the conventional beliefs of a popular movement seeking to overcome the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation. Critical questions should be raised as to the accuracy of such a view in the light of previous new viewpoints. Then for several days the chapter in the text should be taught. This will probably show agreement with the popular conventional view despite the fact that newer texts may make some brief attempts in a paragraph or two at a revised viewpoint. The next step is to quote from such books as A. C. McLaughlin, *Confederation and the Constitution* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1905), and J. M. Beck, *The Constitution of the United States* (New York: George H. Doran Company, 1924) to substantiate the thesis of the textbook, which is the conventional one of improving the weak Articles of Confederation.

The newer view of a capitalist class, seeking centralized national political power for its economic interests and philosophy, as the prime force causing the creation of the Constitution should necessarily be based upon C. A. Beard, *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935), and upon O. G. Libby, *The Geographical Distribution of the Vote of the Thirteen States on the Federal Constitution, 1787-1788* (Madison: The University of Wisconsin, 1894). In presenting this view, the students should be asked to recall what they had learned previously about the struggle of the poor against the rich before the Revolution, and about the Alvord-Schlesinger thesis of the rebellious capitalists seeking political power independent of Britain.

Supporting evidence for the Beard-Libby thesis can be drawn from the researches for separate states by Ambler, Harding and others. The summaries in Beard's books on the Constitution should be used in their entirety in addition to some extracts from Madison's essays in "The Federalist." Perhaps two important ones may suffice. First, the passage wherein Madison argues that only a few people possess the superior faculties [brains] to produce more and better wealth, and hence this right should be protected by governments against the majority, but inferior population. Second, the explanation by Madison of "checks and balances" as a device to protect the alleged superior minority from control by the alleged inferior majority. In contrast to this, one should refer to Beck's account for the conventional belief that checks and balances, and divisions of powers, were designed to protect the majority from the tyranny of government. The nature of the class vote and division on the Constitution as supporting evidence further for Beard's thesis can be drawn from Libby, while his map can be found in Faulkner, McLaughlin and Woodrow Wilson, *History of the American People* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1902).

Only three more topics will be described as taught by the modified scientific method, as it was the writer's experience that he could do no more and still meet the requirements for the first term assigned by the department head. This was true when 1865 marked the term limits. When topics up to 1884 were taught, the modified method was greatly reduced, especially on such subjects as Columbus and early use of Negro slavery.

One of the three topics utilized has been that on the purpose of the Lewis and Clark expedition. While this may seem a trivial one, without bearing on vital social issues, it is a desirable one since its non-controversial tone varies the previous procedures. Moreover, the original source materials are brief, are easily available and understood. Their neglect or misuse by our leading authorities affords some training in the

need to appraise "great authorities" critically, and the desirability of taking little on authority.

Student opinion that the expedition was a scientific one, designed to explore Louisiana after purchase, will be corroborated even in the most recent texts, and by leading authorities such as Thwaites, Channing, Beard and McMaster. Extracts from the latter should be included in a reading exercise for this study. It would also include Jefferson's message to Congress proposing the expedition and his correspondence with Lewis concerning the expedition. The source material shows the texts and the books by leading authorities to be incorrect. It was not a scientific expedition or an exploring expedition to inspect what had been purchased. It was planned prior to expectancy of purchase and was chiefly intended to discover and develop the possibility of fur trade along the Missouri in order to induce private traders along the Ohio to abandon that field. Their presence there, east of the Mississippi, made the Indians reluctant to cede title of their lands to the federal government.

In teaching the War of 1812 the writer introduced its study by this statement: "The class has been taught so far that one's attitudes and opinions are as valid and as good, as his premises. I wish to give further concrete evidence of this by reference to a matter of opinion and vote on a Presidential candidate. Let us read the opening paragraph on your mimeographed sheet."

The class would read as follows: "Admiral Fiske in 1928 said: 'I am voting for Hoover . . . because the Democratic Party . . . has shown itself always . . . unworthy to be entrusted with the safety of the United States. . . . Jefferson, its founder . . . was responsible for the low condition of the navy which emboldened the British to search our ships on the high seas. It was this that brought on the War of 1812.'"<sup>11</sup>

The class should then be asked for its reaction to this statement on the causes of the war. What objections and criticisms can the students make in advance of questions posed by the teacher? Can they raise some questions as to the accuracy of various points? Questions of any kind should call for proof that the admiral was right while others should raise doubts as to the validity of the premises and the conclusions of the admiral. The text should be studied for support, or disproof of the admiral's explanation of the causes of the war. The text will probably support him, declaring the war to have been fought to protect American shipping. The accuracy of this belief should be studied from the best works: Mahan, Babcock, McMaster, Henry Adams, and others. As is well-known these show that both French and British from 1793 to 1812 illegally interfered with American commerce on the high seas. However, nothing much was done about them until southern and western

elements desiring to expand in Florida, the Northwest and Canada forced a war on the issue of impressments and seizures of ships by the British. Evidence of this plot of conquest can be drawn in convenient form from the preface to the work of J. W. Pratt, *Expansionists of 1812* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925). Further evidence of the non-commercial purpose of the war is the vote in Congress against its declaration by the representatives from the northeast and eastern seaboard. This vote is to be found in McMaster, and in Allan Johnson, *Union and Democracy* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1915). Other extracts from Pratt and McMaster show how the "War Hawks" repented of their plot and failed to support Madison in his conduct of the war, and how the latter within a short time of the outbreak of war dispatched emissaries to Europe to negotiate a peace.

Such facts and presentation will be revealing to students on the nature and causes of war and may possibly raise some doubts as to the validity of the popular belief that war is "something about which nothing can be done." With reference to the admiral it will certainly appear that he had false premises for his vote, and that he should have been more certain of his facts before forming opinions.

If all the foregoing has been attempted, most certainly only conventional memoriter learning methods can be applied to the period between 1812 and 1861, as long as departmental requirements call for teaching up to 1884 or further, for the first term. It would only be possible to continue the critical method in regard to the causes of the Civil War and the emancipation of the slaves, or instead of these, possibly one or two other topics desired by the teacher, or students.

Students will declare the Civil War to have been due to slavery, naïvely arguing that such must have been the case else Lincoln would not have freed the slaves. Critical questioning should lead them to see the need to read the text and to contrast its account with leading secondary authorities and revisionist writings of recent years. As a result of study of the text students will declare that slavery caused the war, for even if there is a paragraph explanation on states rights as the cause of war, this brief amount can hardly contradict the extensive reference of a chapter or two to the slavery controversies between North and South. A newer version that the war was due to a political struggle for economic profits to which struggle states rights and slavery were subordinate parts, can be prepared from the several chapters in the Beards' *Rise of American Civilization*. Definitive point can be given to their generalizations of political struggle for economic profits for sections and groups within each section by citing specific monograph material: Hodder on the railroad background of the

Kansas-Nebraska Act; Bretz on the tariff and bank motives of the founders of the Liberty Party.<sup>12</sup> The debates in Congress on the Morrill Tariff Bill of 1860, or the Homestead Bills during the period of 1850 to 1860 will afford much supporting evidence of the political struggle for economic benefits. In general, it can be shown that if the North had the controlling votes in both houses of Congress it could vote itself a high tariff, a centralized banking system, free homesteads, liberal immigration laws, and a transcontinental railroad through northern territory. Conversely, if the South controlled but one house it could negate all these policies, and vote a preference for a low tariff and a southern route for a Pacific railroad.

Since the belief that slavery was the chief cause of the Civil War will have been so greatly challenged, some examination should be made of the rôle played by Lincoln in freeing the slaves. If time is available a project in modified research may be presented to the students by directing them to bring books to class in order to read and compare several accounts. Discussion of varied materials on Lincoln can be completed with whatever conclusions a student may have, or the following points may be made with request for approval or disapproval: the Proclamation did not free a single slave in the *rebellious states*; freedom occurred *only* where the triumph of northern arms permitted; freedom depended upon acceptance, under duress of the bayonet, of the Proclamation, and of the later amendments; moreover, the President could not do constitutionally what could be done only by amendment; freedom of confiscation, as an act of war, was independent of the Proclamation. Critical teaching of this kind will, from the writer's experience, aid in educating for democracy.

### III

In the light of experience gained in developing this method of reteaching critically the American history learned in the elementary schools, the writer would wish to make some recommendations for its extension and improvement, and also some observations upon objections raised to it by some of his colleagues. First, the value of the work is but partly realized since only one term can be devoted to it at present, while at the same time when conducted within the framework of a rigid extensive course of study for a Regents' examination, it does not make for psychological adjustment. Many principles of mental hygiene are thus violated by conventional educational procedures. Second, it would seem imperative to introduce flexible curricula with the exclusion of present memoriter type of Regents' examination, and with the abolition of present dependence upon a single text.

Teachers who have discussed the writer's method



with him declare that it puts too much a burden upon them in the second half of the course in preparing students for the Regents' examination; that it is unfair to let the students incur the risk of failure or low marks owing to the omission of some topics and insufficient drill and review on others; that it makes the students confused and over-cynical; that it coddles them by the presentation of mimeographed summaries of reading material; that it means teacher domination; and that it places too much emphasis upon economic interpretation, which with its critical unlearning of the conventional accounts, creates maladjustment in the form of class hatred and class consciousness.

It should be but commonplace to say that all these criticisms can be effectively met by the provision of more time within which to teach in accord with such objectives as critical attitudes, evaluation and so forth. Time may be provided through intensive use of flexible curricula. If the broader objectives and not mere quantity of information, true or false, is the chief purpose of instruction, then these outcomes should be tested and not a mass of information. Time is available if testing is done on what had been taught and not on an unchangeable extensive course. The same misuse of educational principles occurs in states where there are no Regents' examinations, for there a text is covered for school and college entrance requirements. A proper emphasis upon information as a means and not the end of education will make plenty of time available for the best teaching. The recognized objectives of a good education should determine and condition the educational activities, materials, methods and testing. At present objectives are subordinated, conditioned and circumscribed by quantitative memoriter learning.

It may well be asked whether the writer's results on Regents' examinations were so adversely affected by his modified method to warrant the abolition of those examinations. The best answer is that if he had not been successful, for some reason, in carrying water on both shoulders he would very early in his career have been stopped by his supervisors. From June, 1926 to February, 1931 in a department where the percentage of passing students ranged from 90% in one term to 100% in another (one class of the writer's) the writer always had the highest per cent passing. But in all cases few of the second term students had been in his previous first term class. From June, 1931 to June, 1934, in four terms, the percentage of his passing students for each was 84%, 84%, 80% and 58%, while for the other teachers in the department the record was 92.9%, 89%, 83% and 73%. As for the distribution of marks the writer's students were better distributed as the following indicates: for the period of 1926-1931 there were 35.9% of his students obtaining marks between

65% and 74%, 50.7% of the students obtaining marks between 75% and 84%, and 13.2% obtaining ratings between 84% and 100%. For the same ratings the distribution of the rest of the department was 42.6%, 41.9% and 15.4%. In the period from 1931-1936 for the same classification the writer's students received the following distribution: 45.1%, 46.4%, and 8.05%, while for the rest of the department the student distribution was 54.7%, 32.2% and 13.1%.

The statistics are inconclusive evidence on the point as to whether or not a teacher can superimpose teaching for the wider objectives upon an extensive curriculum and still teach a mass of information. For the writer's method was used only one term; the students were never the same; and in the second term in order to meet requirements for the Regents' examination only direct rote teaching, but with some "thought" questions, was attempted.

Most certainly teachers cannot in the future apply in part, much less the whole of the composite procedure herein described unless they continue to omit current events. For one thing, as will have been noticed, no mention was made of the teaching of current events, or contemporary social problems. Second and most important, teachers must stick more to their last to get Regents' examination results, for since 1931 or so the nature of the examinations has changed. As another writer has pointed out, up to that time certain stock questions such as the provisions of the Monroe Doctrine, of railroad acts, Federal Reserve Act, Immigration Acts and so forth were always asked at the Regents'. Thus, if one made certain to drill during the two weeks prior to the Regents' on some eight or ten stock questions he could experiment as he pleased throughout the year and still get good results in the examinations.<sup>13</sup>

In regard to other criticisms that have been made by colleagues these too resolve themselves when there is freedom to teach in accord with sound pedagogy and not within prescribed limits. For one thing it should not be charged that students are coddled by the use of mimeographed reading materials. These constitute a supplement to the text with a variety of views. It is the text with a single view which coddles. It would, of course, be ideal to have students do modified research on their own initiative and unsupervised as in a college seminar. This is probably done in a less critically scientific manner in schools that have a history library, or in such schools where "bright" students are excused in the recitation period to do extra reading. It is probably a better procedure to have in-school library research but this requires a great variety of books and several copies of each. In general, most students are not prepared for such a critical type of research as the method described advocates. They lack the interest in such type of study



as well as familiarity with, and skill in the techniques of, such study. Moreover, they have other subjects requiring home preparation, and other interests such as church and club membership, music lessons, after-school employment, recreation and family interests which occupy their time sufficiently. Thus, they find daily or weekly visits after school hours to neighborhood or distant libraries quite difficult. All in all, for seniors especially, homework and other interests constitute quite a burden as has been demonstrated by a number of writers. Library visitation as assigned tasks may be done to obtain school credit, but there is no assurance of an education. Formal school work should end with the close of the school day. Visits to libraries and homework should be done voluntarily as part of purposeful learning originally motivated by school experiences. Supervised study in class from mimeographed materials seems the best solution.<sup>14</sup>

Most certainly overemphasis on economic interpretation with its implication of narrow class consciousness will be avoided if there is time for free play of intellectual faculties and for discussion. Discussion as to the full meaning of historical and current happenings will certainly provide opportunities for instruction in the wider psychological interpretation of history and human behavior and for a consideration of a collective psychological nature of life's problems as opposed to a purely economic or political concept.

It would appear that the psychological aspects of life are more important than the material institutional life, for as Burnham says, all these are due to man's kind and degree of integration. In accord with the report of the Commission on the Social Studies, he declares the chief purpose of life and education is the development of wholesome personalities on high levels of integration.<sup>15</sup> Certainly, democratic philosophies and psychologies, intrinsically coöperative, afford high integration, while the scientific method of thought is the necessary means of attaining and reaching such concepts of life. Lack of space prevents any lengthy exposition of this thought.

However, rigid extensive curricula, Regents' examinations on information, rote teaching for the same, all relying upon competition, punishment and fear of failure as inducements to study do not permit of personal psychological adjustment. This is true chiefly because of the lack of activity in the classroom which does not build social contacts, utilize social purposes in learning or as an end, and does not provide or require, active adjustments to one's mates. Moreover, since the chief stress is upon information, the conventional procedures ignore the recommendations of Morrison for a unitary education which, in addition to information, includes attitudes, understandings, appreciations, interests, skills and habits.<sup>16</sup>

To superimpose the modified scientific method

upon the present curriculum is worth while, but it is not enough. It should not appear to the students, as it always has, that something is being "bootlegged" into the classroom. Moreover, the greater the effort to teach critically, the more pressure arises to cover the required course. Thus teacher domination is likely to occur in an endeavor to teach a topic in one period in place of allowing pupil activity and discovery which may require five lessons. As Ashley has said, "Teaching is not telling. Teaching does not consist in having students repeat the facts of the topic interpreted by the ideas and thoughts of the teacher."<sup>17</sup> True teaching requires pupil activity. Teaching for the best objectives must be the normal procedure and not extra-curricular material or one superimposed upon the curriculum interpreted by the teacher.

Activity in class can be obtained by the planning and production by the students of some self-initiated project such as a play, an exhibit, a book, or a magazine. In their reading activity for such ends they can utilize the excellent methodology recently recommended by H. E. Wilson.<sup>18</sup> A tie-up of the whole can be made with contemporary social problems by a method such as recently described by Helbe and Sprague.<sup>19</sup>

We can best educate for democracy once the freedom exists to utilize the findings of scholars engaged in revising conventional viewpoints. Freedom from the limitations of curricula and examinations is necessary in order that this history may be taught by scientific methods rather than by the telling and interpretation of the teacher.

<sup>14</sup> I. T. Blythe, "The Textbooks and the New Discoveries, Emphases and Viewpoints in American History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (December, 1932), 395-402. This study merely reveals the lag in the introduction into the textbook of some historical revisions. It was not designed as a study of all inaccuracies in any one book.

<sup>15</sup> J. L. Blair, "Social Studies and the Textbook Complex," *Education Administration and Supervision*, XIX (November, 1933), 613-620.

<sup>16</sup> A. H. Lybver, "The Influence of the Ottoman Turks upon the Routes of Oriental Trade," *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, I (July, 1914), 125-133.

<sup>17</sup> F. C. Lane, "Venetian Shipping During the Commercial Revolution," *The American Historical Review*, XXXVIII (January, 1933), 219-239.

<sup>18</sup> R. B. Guinness, "But You Did All the Work," *High Points*, XVIII (February, 1936), 31.

<sup>19</sup> R. M. Robbins, "Preemption: A Frontier Triumph," *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XVIII (December, 1931), 331-332. C. A. Herrick, *White Indentured Servitude in Pennsylvania* (Philadelphia: J. J. McVey, 1926), pp. 1-4. J. T. Adams, *Revolutionary New England* (Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press, 1923), pp. 88-89, 115-116, 259, 263.

<sup>20</sup> A. E. Smith, "The Indentured Servant and Land Speculation in Seventeenth Century Maryland," *The American Historical Review*, XL (April, 1935).

<sup>21</sup> Marvin Lowenthal, ed., *The Autobiography of Michael Montaigne* (Cambridge: The Riverside Press, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), pp. 30-32.

<sup>22</sup> P. A. Knowlton, "Politicians, Teachers and Schoolbooks," *Scribner's Magazine*, XCV (June, 1934), 421-424. Describes the subtle textbook censorship which precludes the writing of texts with revised viewpoints.

<sup>10</sup> *The World Almanac* (New York: The World-Telegram Company, 1935), pp. 444, 469, 482.

<sup>11</sup> *The New York Times*, October 5, 1928, 3:3.

<sup>12</sup> F. Hodder, "Railroad Background of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill," *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XII (June, 1925), 3-22. J. P. Bretz, "Economic Background of the Liberty Party," *The American Historical Review*, XXXIV (January, 1929), 250-264.

<sup>13</sup> Jay Golub, "The Nature of the Regents' Examination in American History," *High Points*, XII (January, 1930), 11-15. Daniel Tenrosen in the October issue declared Golub's analysis slightly exaggerated.

<sup>14</sup> Material should not be mimeographed without consent of the copyright owner.

<sup>15</sup> W. H. Burnham, *The Wholesome Personality* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1932).

<sup>16</sup> H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931).

<sup>17</sup> R. L. Ashley, "Civics in the Social Studies Program," *The Sixth Yearbook*, National Council for the Social Studies (1936), p. 102.

<sup>18</sup> H. E. Wilson, "American History in the Social Studies Program," *The Sixth Yearbook*, National Council for the Social Studies (1936), 46-48.

<sup>19</sup> H. H. Helble and L. D. Sprague, "Teaching History That Functions for Daily Living," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVIII (January, 1937), 13-17.

## Four Public Declarations of the Revolutionary Period

JOHN LEWIS KIPLINGER

*West Liberty, West Virginia*

On July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia, adopted Thomas Jefferson's draft of a Declaration of Independence. In so doing it issued what has been called "the birth certificate of the American nation." Yet, that rainy summer day, when as tradition has it the deliberations of the silk-stockinged delegates were hindered by the attacks of mosquitoes and flies from near-by livery stables, was not the first occasion on which a gathering of Americans had proclaimed the rights and liberties of their countrymen to be a law superior to any that might come from England.

Records of the discontented period following 1763 are not lacking in published appeals to traditional colonial privileges. However, it was as much the English Revolution as the coming American revolt that found expression in demands for the continuance of long-established commercial and political freedom.

During the summer of 1774, twelve of the American colonies named delegates to the first Continental Congress, which met in Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, the first Monday in September. A new note immediately sounded in the transactions of public and representative bodies in the various provinces, and despite continued and sincere protestations of loyalty to the crown and the British connection, colonials were swept as by a tide in the direction of unity of action and independence of the mother country.

During the interval between the opening of the first session of the Continental Congress and the appointment of George Washington as commander of the Continental Army the following June, four widely separated patriot gatherings voted approval of sets of "resolves," for three of which the claim of prior declarations of independence has been made.

The fourth, no less certainly a mile-stone on the road to nationhood, sprang from the fountainhead of revolution—the Boston district.

### I

No more taxes should be delivered into the hands of royal officers "until the civil government of the province is placed upon a constitutional foundation, or until it shall otherwise be ordered by the proposed provincial Congress."<sup>1</sup> Such was the import of the seventh "Suffolk Resolve," one of nineteen resolutions adopted by leaders in Massachusetts' stand against British authority. Meeting at the home of Richard Woodward in Dedham, September 6, 1774, and at the home of Daniel Vose in Milton three days later, the Suffolk county spokesmen did "cheerfully acknowledge the said George the Third to be our rightful Sovereign," subject to compact with the founders of the colony. However, they declared that judges appointed by tenure other than the charter directed, to be "unconstitutional officers." They admonished councillors named under the new Massachusetts Bay Act to resign by September 20, 1774, or be considered enemies. They called for the organization of militia, and "determined to act merely upon the defensive, so long as such conduct may be vindicated by reason and the principles of self-preservation, but no longer." They recommended that the seizure of their leaders should be followed by the arrest of crown officials, that non-intercourse be put into effect, and home arts and manufactures encouraged, and that couriers should be constituted at county expense to warn of "any sudden maneuvers" of the enemy. Finally they sent a committee headed by Dr. Joseph Warren to General Gage to deliver a

protest against the fortification of Boston Neck.

Paul Revere—of the midnight ride—delivered the Suffolk Resolves to Congress just a week after the meeting at Milton. Resolutions of support for Massachusetts and indorsement of the resolves passed Congress, September 17, 1774, without a dissenting vote from among the fifty-five delegates. Never remiss in its press relations, the Continental Congress ordered, "That these Resolutions, together with the Resolutions of the County of Suffolk, be published in the newspapers."

The unanimity of sentiment manifested on this occasion was credited by contemporaries with having contributed greatly to the adoption of the Association, which prefaced the assumption of revolutionary authority by the Congress. Meanwhile, events on the frontier were leading up to another firm definition of the allegiance due the mother country. This was the Fort Gower Address, issued by the Virginia militia under Colonel Andrew Lewis, on what is now Ohio soil.

## II

In August of 1774, Lord Dunmore, royal governor of Virginia, collected a force of three thousand men for a campaign against the Indian towns on the Scioto River. While the governor's march against the redskins was by a northern route, Colonel Lewis, who had raised half of the levy in Botetourt and neighboring countries, led eleven hundred militiamen along the Great Kanawha River to its juncture with the Ohio at what is now Point Pleasant, West Virginia. There on October 10, 1774, the Virginians were attacked by nearly a thousand warriors led by the Shawnee chieftain, Cornstalk. After an entire day of severe fighting, the Indians withdrew, taking their wounded with them.<sup>2</sup>

In the meantime Lord Dunmore had descended the Ohio River from above Wheeling and had established defences and a supply station at the mouth of the Great Hockhocking River. This post, located in Athens county, Ohio, was given the name Fort Gower. Shortly after the Battle of Point Pleasant, Lewis and Dunmore joined forces, moving the scene of their operations to the Pickaway Plains in the heart of the Indian country. A treaty of peace was imposed, although the border riflemen and their fiery colonel were eager to finish with the enemy, destroy their towns, and drive them out of the Scioto Valley.

The frontiersmen felt that Lord Dunmore was unwilling to break the power of the Indians, preferring to maintain a threat against their homes in the event of revolution. So it was in no cheerful mood that the men of the Old Dominion began the return journey, by way of Fort Gower. There on November 5, 1774—two months to the day after the Continental Congress convened in Philadelphia—the officers held a meeting "for the purpose of considering the griev-

ances of British America." Records of the proceedings include the following speech by an officer, typical of the times and the men:

Gentlemen: Having now concluded the campaign, by the assistance of Providence, with honour and advantage to the Colony and ourselves, it only remains that we should give our country the strongest assurance that we are ready, at all times, to the utmost of our power, to maintain and defend her just rights and privileges. We have lived about three months in the woods without any intelligence from Boston, or from the Delegates at Philadelphia. It is possible, from the groundless reports of designing men, that our countrymen may be jealous of the use such a body would make of arms in their hands at this critical juncture. That we are a respectable body is certain, when it is considered that we can live weeks without bread or salt; that we can sleep in the open air without any covering but that of the canopy of Heaven; and that we can march and shoot with any in the known world. Blessed with these talents, let us solemnly engage to one another, and our country in particular, that we will use them to no purpose but for the honour and advantage of America in general, and of Virginia in particular. It behooves us then, for the satisfaction of our country, that we should give them our real sentiments, by the way of resolves, at this very alarming crisis.<sup>3</sup>

The officers named a committee, which immediately withdrew and after spending some time at the task, completed a set of resolutions. In view of the feeling against the royal governor, the articles paid their respects to him in terms that might be considered equivocal. The committee made its report, which was "maturely considered," agreed upon *nemine contradicente*, and ordered published in the *Virginia Gazette*. The resolves, or the Fort Gower Address, were as follows:

Resolved, That we will bear the most faithful allegiance to his Majesty King George the Third, while his Majesty delights to reign over a brave and free people; that we will, at the expense of life, and every thing dear and valuable, exert ourselves in support of the honour of his Crown and the dignity of the British Empire. But as the love of Liberty, and attachment to the real interests and just rights of America outweigh every other consideration, we resolve that we will exert every power within us for the defence of American liberty, and for the support of her just rights and privileges; not in any precipitate, riotous, or tumultuous manner, but when regularly called forth by the unanimous voice of our countrymen.



Resolved, That we entertain the greatest respect for his Excellency the Right Honourable Lord Dunmore, who commanded the expedition against the Shawnees; and who, we are confident, underwent the great fatigue of this singular campaign from no other motive than the true interest of this country.

Signed by order and in behalf of the whole Corps.

BENJAMIN ASHBY, Clerk

### III

Another "prior declaration of independence" came from the head of Chesapeake Bay. On March 22, 1775, a committee elected by the ten thousand white residents of Harford county, Maryland, met at Bush to adopt a statement of policy. All of the thirty-four members of the group signed the declaration:

We, the Committee of Harford county having most seriously and maturely considered the Resolves and Association of the Continental Congress and the Resolves of the Provincial Convention, do most heartily approve of the same, and as we esteem ourselves in a more particular manner, entrusted by our constituents to see them carried into execution, we do most solemnly pledge ourselves to each other and to our country and engage ourselves by every tie held sacred among mankind to perform the same at the risque of our lives and fortunes.<sup>4</sup>

The Harford county manifesto is claimed by Maryland historians to have been "the first declaration of independence made by any representative body in America," and again, "the first declaration made and signed by any organized body, the context of which could be interpreted as treason, and action taken against the signers."<sup>5</sup>

Whether the similarity of phrasing between the conclusion of the Harford document and that of the Declaration of Independence is due to accident or derivation has been and remains a subject for debate. Some might even find echoes of the Fort Gower transactions in the brief Maryland declaration. It is certain that colonial leaders paid close attention to the printed accounts of public meetings throughout the country, and in all probability members of the Harford committee were acquainted with the Virginia officers' address, and Thomas Jefferson's wide range of reading had included the proceedings of both groups.

### IV

Within a month of the Harford "treason," open warfare broke out in New England. A Southern reverberation of the "shot heard round the world" has become famous as the Mecklenburg Declaration.

What actually occurred at various meetings of

the Committee of Safety of Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, in May of 1775 was long in dispute among scholars. But it is established that at a session of the Committee on May 31, 1775, there was adopted a set of resolves far more radical than any known to have preceded them. The "true" Mecklenburg Declaration consisted of twenty resolutions, published in at least three newspapers, the *North-Carolina Gazette*, New Bern, June 16, 1775; the *South-Carolina Gazette and Country Journal*, Charleston, June 13, 1775; and the *Cape-Fear Mercury*, Wilmington, June 23, 1775.<sup>6</sup>

Citing a proclamation by Parliament that the American colonies were "in a state of actual rebellion," the preamble drew from that the conclusion that "all Laws and Commissions confirmed by, or derived from the authority of the King or Parliament, are annulled and vacated, and the former civil Constitution of these Colonies, for the present, wholly suspended."

The flight of the royal governor to a British man-of-war anchored in the mouth of the Cape Fear River gave point to the above declaration. Accordingly, the Mecklenburg committee sought to establish a temporary government, voting in the second resolution:

That the Provincial Congress of each Province, under the direction of the great Continental Congress, is invested with all legislative and executive powers within their respective Provinces; and that no other legislative or executive power does, or can exist, at this time, in any of these Colonies.

Any person thereafter attempting to fulfill a commission from the Crown should be considered an enemy to his country and taken into custody, the committee agreed. After making elaborate provision for the organization of local government, the committee resolved that their twenty articles should remain "in full force and virtue until instructions from the Provincial Congress regulating the jurisprudence of the Province shall provide otherwise, or the legislative body of Great Britain resign its unjust and arbitrary pretensions with respect to America."

Though strictly only a declaration of temporary independence, the Mecklenburg resolves were too far in advance of public sentiment to receive the approval of the Continental Congress, and according to William Henry Hoyt, from the moment that the Mecklenburg committee declared the investiture of the provincial and continental congresses with legislative and executive powers, British law and authority ceased forever in the county. Thirteen months had yet to elapse before the delegates in Philadelphia would solemnly publish and declare,

That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the



British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do.

<sup>1</sup>*Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789*, W. C. Ford, editor, 33 vols. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1904-1936), I, 31-40. *American Archives*, 4th and 5th series, 9 vols., M. St. Clair Clarke and Peter Force, editors, Washington, D.C.: (Government Printing Office, 1837-1853), I, 776-779, 901-904.

<sup>2</sup>R. G. Thwaites and Louise P. Kellogg, *Documentary History of Dunmore's War, 1774* (Madison: Wisconsin Historical

Society, 1905), pp. 253-296. Virgil A. Lewis, *History of the Battle of Point Pleasant* (Charleston, W.Va.: *The Tribune*, 1909). C. H. Ambler, *A History of West Virginia* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1933), pp. 110-117.

<sup>3</sup>*American Archives*, 4th series, I, 962-963. Henry Howe, *Historical Collections of Ohio*, 2 vols. (Krehbiel for State of Ohio, 1908), II, 407-408. R. G. Thwaites and Louise P. Kellogg, *Documentary History of Dunmore's War*, p. 311.

<sup>4</sup>M. P. Andrews, *History of Maryland: Province and State*, (New York: Doubleday Doran and Company, 1929), 317-318. Thomas J. Malone, "The First Declaration," *The Commonwealth*, X (1929), 276-77, 337, 405-406.

<sup>5</sup>W. W. Preston, *History of Harford County, Maryland, 1608-1812* (Baltimore: Theodore Arnold, 1907), p. 101; and M. P. Andrews, *Tercentenary History of Maryland*, I, 562, quoted by Thomas J. Malone, *The Commonwealth*, X, 406.

<sup>6</sup>*American Archives*, 4th series, II, 855-864. William E. Shea, "North Carolina Hugs a Delusion," *The Independent* (1928), 496-498. W. H. Hoyt, *The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1907).

## Social Problems in American History Textbooks

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### INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

The material to be presented is based upon a critical analysis of the content of the secondary school course of study in American history as exemplified by current textbooks. This study was particularly concerned with the extent and manner in which such textbooks may actually contribute to the enlightenment of young citizens with regard to major social problems of contemporary America. The present social crisis, the strategic position of the social studies in the training of an efficient citizenry, and the present controversy over the social studies curriculum, necessitate a realistic examination of the actual content of the social studies, as at present offered to our secondary school students.

It should be recognized that in American educational practice, textbooks virtually represent the curriculum. Evidence from a great many official school surveys, as well as from many authoritative sources in the field of the social studies is available, disclosing the dominant rôle of the textbook in determining the essential character of subject content. According to Pierce,<sup>1</sup> it is both "needless and commonplace" even to call attention to this phenomenon. There is no disposition here to create the erroneous impression that most teachers of the social studies present only the official textbook content, but laying aside current desiderata in the realm of theory, once we know

what textbooks are used in a given community it is possible by an analysis of these textbooks to describe the essential nature of the content offered to the young citizens of that community.

Although there have been many investigations of American history textbooks in the past, with the exception of the studies of Pierce<sup>2</sup> and Blythe<sup>3</sup>—which are unrelated to the present problem—such studies have been of an essentially quantitative nature, being concerned with such factors as the relative importance of historical characters, events, chronological periods, geographical elements, topics and general types of emphasis. The present study was concerned not only with the amount of space devoted to the social problems selected but also with the nature of the content devoted to their treatment.

The study under discussion was confined to an analysis of the American history textbooks used in the senior high schools of New York City. Information supplied by the chairmen of social studies departments in forty-four high schools disclosed that the following thirteen textbooks are used in the American history classes of New York City:

R. L. Ashley, *American History*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931.

C. A. Beard, and M. R. Beard, *History of the United States*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932.

- M. B. Casner, and R. H. Gabriel, *Exploring American History*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934.
- H. U. Faulkner, and T. Kepner, *America*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1934.
- E. D. Fite, *History of the United States*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1930.
- S. E. Forman, *Advanced American History*. New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1934.
- W. B. Guitteau, *The History of the United States*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933.
- W. A. Hamm, H. E. Bourne, and E. J. Benton, *A Unit History of the United States*. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932.
- A. B. Hulbert, *United States History*. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930.
- M. W. Jernegan, H. E. Carlson, and A. C. Ross, *Growth of the American People*. New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1934.
- D. S. Muzzey, *History of the American People*. New York: Ginn and Company, 1934.
- T. J. Wertenbaker, and D. E. Smith, *The United States of America*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1931.
- W. M. West, and R. West, *The American People*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1934.

The date given for each textbook refers to the edition used in the present study.

Inasmuch as only the latest editions of these thirteen textbooks were used—none earlier than 1930—and as these books represent about half of the total number of secondary American history textbooks published or revised in the last decade, the results of the present study should be of more than local significance.

The textbooks were analyzed with reference to fifteen problems of contemporary American life which were drawn from the report of President Hoover's Committee on Recent Social Trends, and likewise found in the works of outstanding social scientists over a period of years, as indicated in the study of Billings.<sup>4</sup> The following social problems thus selected represent those not only of the present generation as indicated in Recent Social Trends, but also problems that have been persistently before the American people for many years:

1. Conservation of Natural Resources.
2. Labor.
3. Transportation.
4. Farm Problem.
5. Business Organization.
6. Graft and Corruption.
7. Representation.
8. Propaganda.
9. American Imperialism.

10. Prevention of War.
11. The Arts (American Culture).
12. Education.
13. Women.
14. Racial Problems.
15. Immigration.

#### CRITERIA

The following were some of the quantitative criteria applied to each of the thirteen textbooks under consideration:

1. How much space, considered in terms of pages, is devoted to the treatment of each problem throughout the entire period of American history?
2. How much space is devoted to the treatment of each problem since the War, i.e., since 1918?
3. How much space is devoted to the treatment of each problem since the beginning of the present crisis, i.e., since 1929?
4. How does the amount of space devoted to these problems compare with the amount of space devoted to the wars of American history?

The following were among the qualitative criteria applied to the textbook content under consideration:

1. Does the author treat the subject as a major social problem of contemporary American life?
2. Is the content provocative of critical thinking with reference to current issues and controversial elements relating to the problem?

These qualitative criteria, based on internal evidence, provided an indication of the value of the material presented in contributing to the understanding of a problem in its present-day aspects.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In presenting conclusions, it must be emphasized that there is no intention to praise, condemn, or even characterize any textbook referred to. Nor is there any intention to imply approval or disapproval of the particular attitude or point of view of any textbook writer on any problem whatsoever or on any phase or period thereof. These conclusions relate only to the objective evidence disclosed through the use of the criteria indicated without regard to any other considerations.

It should be understood that the conclusions with regard to these textbooks relate only to one objective in the teaching of American history, namely the presentation of a basis for the understanding of the major problems of contemporary American life. It should be stated also that the emphasis in this study is on social information and knowledge to the exclusion of other attributes. Full cognizance is taken of the possibility that somewhat different results might have been obtained with the use of different materials or even with the same materials in the hands of

another investigator due to the inherent difficulty of excluding all subjectivity, particularly in dealing with qualitative considerations.

#### QUANTITATIVE CONCLUSIONS

The following are the more important quantitative findings of the present study:

1. On the average, a total of 157 pages is devoted by each textbook to these fifteen problems throughout the entire period of the history of the United States. Five of the thirteen textbooks are above this average; namely the textbooks of Beard, Casner, Faulkner, Hamm, and West. It is of interest to note that the range among these textbooks is from 83 pages to 263 pages. In other words, some textbooks devote more than three times as much space to these problems than do others. In terms of percentage a range of from 14% to 30% of the total textbook content is devoted to the treatment of these problems from the beginning of our national history.

2. On an average, less than one-fifth of the total space devoted by these textbooks to the fifteen problems, deals with the problems in the period since the World War. The average number of pages devoted to all of the problems since 1918 is 30 pages although the range among these textbooks is from 7 pages to 94 pages. In the case of the extremes just mentioned, one of the textbooks devotes approximately thirteen times as much space to the fifteen problems as the other textbook.

Faulkner, Forman, Guitteau, Hamm, Muzzey, and West devote more than the average number of pages for these thirteen textbooks to the problems in the period since 1918.

A majority of the thirteen textbooks have absolutely no material on some of the problems since the war. This is true of the problems of race, conservation and culture. Other problems that are generally slighted by these textbooks are those dealing with women, corruption, propaganda, education and representation. It seems reasonable to conclude that the failure of a textbook to include any material on a problem since the war, renders at least negligible the possible contribution of that textbook to the understanding of the problem in its present setting. Furthermore, it would hardly be rash to add that a textbook with only 7 pages devoted to all the selected problems in the period since 1918 could hardly be expected to contribute anything significant toward the understanding of any one of these problems.

It is of interest to note that only one of the textbooks analyzed contained material on every one of the problems for the period since the war.

3. On an average, one-twentieth of the total space devoted by these textbooks to the problems under consideration, deals with them in the period since 1929. The choice of the year 1929 was occasioned

by a consideration of the effect of the present crisis, in focussing attention on contemporary problems of American life and also by the fact that the latest edition of each of the textbooks was used—none earlier than 1930.

The average number of pages devoted by the textbooks to all the selected problems since 1929 is 8 pages—the range for these textbooks being from zero pages to 32 pages. Faulkner, Forman, Guitteau, Hamm and Jernegan devote more than the average number of pages indicated to the problems in the period since 1929.

With reference to ten of the fifteen problems, the majority of the thirteen textbooks have no material at all for this chronological period. The evidence also indicates that six of the thirteen textbooks have practically no material on any of these problems with the date of the edition unrelated to the conclusion mentioned.

Although not one of the textbooks has material devoted to each of the fifteen problems in the period since 1929, four of the textbooks contain material on ten or more of the problems. These are the textbooks of Faulkner, Forman, Hamm and Jernegan.

The social problems dealing with women, race, education, and the arts or culture are slighted with reference to space allotment in all three chronological periods mentioned.

4. It is of interest to note that the textbooks analyzed, devote about as much space to the wars of American history as they do to the content devoted to the historical backgrounds and recent developments of the problems under consideration. An average of 18% of the total space of these textbooks is devoted to wars with 22% of the space given to the fifteen problems. It is noteworthy that a majority of the textbooks devote more of their space to wars than to the presentation of these problems of American life. One author, in fact, devotes twice as much space to the wars. On the other hand, four of the textbooks devote more than twice as much space to the fifteen problems; namely those of Beard, Faulkner, Hamm, and West. Incidentally, the textbooks devoting the least amount of space to the wars devote the greatest amount of space to the social problems.

5. A comparison was made of the relative amount of space devoted to these problems by the unit type textbooks and by the textbooks organized along more traditional lines. The unit histories analyzed were those of Casner, Faulkner, Hamm, and Jernegan.

The evidence indicates that the unit histories devote more space on an average, to the problems than do the other textbooks considered here; the figures being 202 pages and 138 pages respectively or 25% and 20% in terms of percentage of entire textbook space. The difference in space allotment is more pronounced in the later chronological periods considered, with



the unit histories devoting more than twice as much space to the problems. Considerably less space is devoted to wars in the unit histories.

It must, of course, be recognized that the conclusions just stated relate to only one of many important factors that must enter into any consideration of the relative merits of different types of textbook organization.

#### QUALITATIVE CONCLUSIONS

The following are the general conclusions drawn from an analysis of the qualitative evidence:

1. Most of the textbooks fail to treat a majority of the problems as major problems of contemporary American life. Only one textbook treats every one of the fifteen problems as an important contemporary problem. Beard, Faulkner, Hamm, and Jernegan are the only authors to stress the contemporary importance of a majority of these social problems.

2. The problems of imperialism, immigration and war prevention are the only problems treated as major contemporary problems in all thirteen textbooks. The labor, farm, representation, and conservation problems are the only others so presented in a majority of the textbooks. The contemporary importance of the problems of education, business organization, arts, women, transportation, corruption, and propaganda is unrecognized in most textbooks.

3. Most of the textbooks, here represented, do not treat a majority of these problems with reference to specific current issues, while several textbooks neglect practically all of the problems in this respect. Faulkner, Hamm, Jernegan and West are the only authors to treat a majority of the problems in a manner calculated to provoke critical thinking with reference to related current issues and controversial elements.

A few examples will suffice to illustrate the nature of some of the issues introduced. Only five of the thirteen textbooks call attention to specific issues relating to present-day labor problems. Hamm discloses differences of opinion relating to the child-labor amendment. He also points out various criticisms of the injunction as used in labor disputes. Faulkner points to criticisms of the injunction and also to the dissatisfaction of some with the conservatism of the American Federation of Labor. West attacks various aspects of industrial strikes and also interprets the labor problem as a class struggle. Jernegan focuses attention on the problem of technological unemployment and on the issue of national planning, while Hulbert also raises the issue of the injunction.

With reference to the problems of race only four authors present current issues. Ashley raises the question of the present status and future of the Negro in American life. Hamm induces critical thought regarding lynching and race rioting, the "Jim Crow"

system in the South, the disproportionate share of illiteracy among Negroes, and the discrimination against the Japanese in our immigration policy.

Faulkner not only treats current issues relating to Negroes, Orientals and Jews, but also deals with the causes of racial friction. Wertenbaker raises questions relating to anti-Japanese sentiment in the far West today and also gives consideration to issues relating to the "Jim Crow" system, Negro education, and the elimination of the Negroes from politics in the South.

Hamm and Jernegan are the only authors to introduce such material in connection with the problems of propaganda. Hamm raises the question of the influence of advertising on newspaper policies. He also indicates the dangers of propaganda by big business interests.

Jernegan deals realistically with the problem of propaganda, introducing five specific issues. He emphasizes the widespread standardization of newspaper materials, the political, sectional, and class prejudices of newspapers, the effect of advertising and circulation factors on the discussion of important issues, the influence of the movies in shaping the American mind, and the dangers inherent in the autocratic control of radio broadcasting.

Similar data with respect to the other problems could be given if space permitted.

4. The problems of imperialism, immigration and war prevention are treated with reference to specific current issues by most of the textbooks. A majority of the textbooks fail to treat the other twelve social problems with reference to current issues or controversial elements. The internal evidence indicates that the social problems of education, race, arts, women, and propaganda are neither presented as major contemporary problems nor treated with reference to specific current issues by a majority of the textbooks.

5. It is particularly significant to note the number of specific current issues raised by the textbooks with reference to these fifteen problems. In all, 169 issues are introduced by the thirteen textbooks. Two textbooks raise almost half of this number or almost as many as all of the others combined. The average number of issues raised by all of the textbooks is thirteen with Faulkner, Hamm, Jernegan and West the only textbook authors to present more than this number of specific current issues relative to all fifteen problems combined.

6. It is to be noted that the problem of imperialism stimulates the largest number of specific issues; thirty-five to be exact. Other problems inducing the introduction of critical and controversial current elements with some degree of frequency are the problems of immigration, prevention of war and business organization with eighteen, seventeen, and fourteen specific current issues respectively raised by all of the text-



books combined. The problems of corruption, conservation and the arts have the least number of such issues with four, five, and five, respectively raised by the thirteen textbooks.

#### COMPARISON OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ELEMENTS

A comparison of the quantitative and qualitative results of this study discloses the following:

1. The textbooks which rank the highest in the total number of pages devoted to these problems from the beginning of our national history also rank the highest with respect to the number of problems treated as major contemporary problems, the number treated with reference to specific current issues and the number of such specific issues raised.

2. In general, the textbooks with the least amount of space devoted to the problems in recent years raise the least number of specific issues relating to the present and future. However, the amount of space devoted to the problems in recent years bears no direct relation to the number of issues presented, inasmuch as textbooks with similar page totals for this period differ greatly in the number of specific current issues raised.

3. In general, the problems of propaganda, race, women, arts, graft and corruption, and education are slighted with respect to both quantitative and qualitative considerations in current secondary American history textbooks.

4. In general, the textbooks that devote more total space to wars than to all fifteen problems fail to treat a majority of these problems as major contemporary problems or to introduce specific issues or controversial elements dealing with the present phases of most of the problems.

5. In general, it may be concluded that students using the textbooks analyzed in the present study will learn something about all of these problems but will learn little about most of them in relation to the contemporary period that will be of assistance in the understanding of present issues and controversial elements that citizens will need to possess.

#### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

1. The conclusions of the present study point to the need of devoting more space in secondary American history textbooks to major problems of American life with emphasis on present day aspects, issues and controversial elements. This may of necessity imply less space to the treatment of wars which in spite of current desiderata consumes almost a fifth of the total amount of space in the average textbook.

2. In order to insure the proper emphasis on major problems of contemporary American life, new departures in textbook writing may be necessary. The presentation of a subject, topic, or unit in American

history might well be initiated with a consideration of present difficulties and controversial issues proceeding from this point to a treatment of historic origins relating to present problems. While there is admittedly nothing original about the idea involved, it would nevertheless constitute a complete deviation from the present general practice of beginning with the distant past and never quite arriving at the present problem and its implications for American citizens.

3. In present educational practice, relating to the selection of history textbooks on the secondary level, too little attention is paid to qualitative aspects of content especially with regard to factors contributing to the development of civic and social understanding. At present there are no standards available for practical use based on the findings of educational and social research relating to such elements of content. Check-lists containing objective data of this nature should be made available for the use of supervisors and teachers of the social studies to assist them in selecting textbooks. Research divisions of school systems might well be concerned with this problem.

In large school systems particularly, because of the amount of money involved, there is a responsibility to the taxpayers to select and utilize those textbooks that will contribute the most to meet the needs of young citizens. For this reason, there should be more general awareness of the comparative qualities of the available textbooks on the part of administrators, supervisors and teachers directly concerned with the social studies. This, in turn, should result in a closer correspondence between the quality and frequency of use of available textbooks. The nature of the textbooks used in a school system might well be regarded as one criterion of the progressiveness of that system since it indicates the nature of the content provided for the consideration of its young citizens.

4. In communities where no courses in problems of democracy or problems of American government are provided—and where there is a reliance on the regular course in American history to provide for an understanding of such problems—it seems evident that such reliance is largely misplaced. Present courses in American history on the secondary level, judging from the content of the textbooks analyzed, are contributing little in this direction.

5. A necessity for the introduction of all sorts of stimuli, in American history classes, that can be of use to students in the consideration of present social problems, would seem to be indicated. Young citizens should be exposed to newspapers and magazines of all viewpoints, and directed to plays, movies, radio and public events, as well as to all sorts of collateral reading materials in addition to the regular textbook.

A vital consideration would be omitted if attention were not called to the existence of pressures of all

sorts operating to influence the content of textbooks in American history. It may well be, that the existence or fear of minority pressures is in some measure responsible for the widespread failure to provide realistic treatment of social problems in the textbooks analyzed. There seems to be no question of the fact that textbook writers and publishers in view of sales considerations, may be hampered by regulations and restrictions adopted by Boards of Education in response to pressures such as those described by Pierce.<sup>5</sup> The effect of an official prescription such as the following on textbook writing is not difficult to understand—"As far as possible, the writer of a textbook should avoid controversial topics. The public schools are maintained by the public funds. The taxpayers are of various creeds and political beliefs. Their feelings must be respected."<sup>6</sup>

To conclude, the evidence from the present study would seem to show that the phenomenon just indi-

cated need not be a serious obstacle to the proper presentation of social problems. The fact that innumerable present-day issues of a controversial nature were introduced into the textbook content analyzed—implies perhaps that the manner of presenting controversial problems is the all-important consideration after all.

<sup>5</sup> B. L. Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930).

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>7</sup> I. T. Blythe, "The Textbooks and the New Discoveries, Emphases, and Viewpoints in American History," *Historical Outlook* XXIII (December, 1932), pp. 395-402.

<sup>8</sup> Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929).

<sup>9</sup> B. L. Pierce, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History*, (New York: Knopf, 1926).

<sup>10</sup> New York City Board of Education, *Report on History Textbooks Used in the Public Schools of the City of New York, 1922*, as quoted by B. L. Pierce, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History*, p. 316.

## History and Living

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"History maketh a young man to be old, without either wrinkles or gray hairs, privileging him with the experience of age, without either the infirmities or the inconveniences thereof." This quotation from the work of Thomas Fuller makes it clear that each generation inherits the knowledge of the last.

Man has become the measure of all things and the general picture that he attempts to produce is that of man at his best elevated by the superiority of his brain power. But man as the thinker and explorer of his universe cannot be separated from man as a social creature. Man's behavior, as an individual and in groups, is determined not solely by dictates of reason, but by a complication of many factors, deeply rooted in man's instincts, intuitions, prejudices, traditions, taboos, and other springs of action, some of which date back to his beginnings on earth a million years ago. "If to do were as easy as to know what were good to do, chapels had been churches, and poor men's cottages, princes' palaces," as Shakespeare says in the *Merchant of Venice*.

John Dewey, the American philosopher, urges that the man of science first re-educate himself to "realize his responsibility toward the wider range of human affairs," and apply to those affairs the same scientific method that rules the laboratory.

For the purpose of this paper the term history is used to include all the social sciences—philosophy,

psychology, economics, sociology, anthropology and other related subjects, which together form the spectrum of the intellectual prism we call history. These are our latest available means of observation to determine why man's behavior lags so far behind his mind. He has made astounding progress with his mind and has made for himself tools with which he has become master. Yet, while he has gained mastery with his mind, he has not yet become master of his conduct.

Such a plight has caused both the social and physical scientist no small concern. They realize that the time has come for some thoughtful "social engineering." Last year, the National Association of Science Writers suggested the establishment of a "Supreme Court of Knowledge" to the scholars of the world, gathered at Cambridge, Massachusetts, for the Harvard University Tercentenary Conference of Arts and Sciences. Such a Court of Knowledge would result from a symposium on man and his institutions with special reference to the interchange between the cultures of different races. Also, at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, instead of the usual emphasis on such esoteric things as the interior of the atom, the emphasis last year was all on social problems.

President Roosevelt and former President Hoover have at different times challenged the preparedness

of engineers to meet their social responsibilities. The need for extending the college training of engineers to include social sciences was stressed at a meeting of the Middle Atlantic Section of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education at Columbia University. Dr. H. N. Davis, president of Stevens Institute of Technology told the three hundred engineering teachers at the meeting that more than half the graduates of engineering schools went into business rather than engineering, and that therefore the schools must give them more than a technical education. He favored a general course covering necessary knowledge of history, government, economics and sociology. He said that psychology would become increasingly important to the engineer.

There has been organized an Institute on Regional Improvement, under the leadership of Dr. Howard W. Odum, head of the department of sociology, University of North Carolina, which will serve as a research set-up for the South. A committee has been authorized and instructed to "work out ways and means by which a coördinated program of regional research may be developed through the educational institutions and research agencies of the region, and a planning and action agency or agencies established for developing or carrying into effect programs for regional development." Specialists in the various fields of social science will contribute their bit to eliminate the southern rural slums and make life worth living to that element of our population.

The practical interest of history has increased the enrollment of university classes in that subject and has stimulated the forum idea throughout the nation. Such interest in history relative to living has a salutary meaning for us, but as Shakespeare said: "Few words shall fit the trespass best, where no excuse can give the fault amending." The study of man's experience teaches us nothing if it does not consecrate us to the practice of rational living by the application of scientific knowledge to individual daily conduct. Social attitudes are not taught in schools, but are developed in reactions to social problems in daily living.

At times, we seem to profess one thing, only to do another; it is a conflict between progress and stagnation, knowledge and conduct, science and social order. We have before us today the strange paradoxes of over-production and under-consumption, improved transportation and unimproved distribution, vast prosperity and appalling poverty, multiplied occupations and unparalleled unemployment, triumphant medicine and widespread disease, prolonged life and useless and dependent old age, greater armaments and less security, larger social units and less social unity, the elimination of the unfit and survival of the fit, as well as the production of the unfit and the elimination of the fit.

History should teach us that mere words will not keep the peace. The past affords no better instance of more futile words spoken in the interest of peace than the period just before the World War. William Jennings Bryan with his speech titled "The Prince of Peace" was the most notable of the crusaders. Yet, despite all efforts, legalized murder became world wide for the first time in history. The League of Nations established after the World War has practically become a nullity through lack of coöperation and also the failure of the United States to join.

Institutions under which we live no longer correspond with the facts and needs of our every day existence. In an age of air travel, wireless, and television, we are forced to do business with the political and economic machinery of the days of the oil lamp and the stage coach. There is enough human intelligence concentrated in our universities and in the vast number of well-trained specialists, if those in authority would take advantage of it, to solve our international problems. "Men at some time are masters of their fate; the fault is not in our stars, but in ourselves."

There is an organization known as the "World Foundation," which has among the members of its advisory council such men as Lord Allen, member of the executive council of the League of Nations Union, and Sir Norman Angell, writer and lecturer, whose chief aim is the intelligent organization of life on this planet. This foundation does not plan to exert any direct influence on immediate events. It must rather be considered as an agency for the education of world opinion and the fostering a point of view, namely, the inherent unity of all mankind in the world.

There is an inherent unity of mankind which nationalism, propagated through perverted history, blatantly ignores. We have come to an age when from the material, as from the moral and mental point of view, the circulation of life throughout the body of mankind is as intense as the circulation of life throughout the human body. Despite the fact that the slogan of the last general cataclysm was "a war to end all war," we hear rumblings of turmoil everywhere. There is an extra-curricular course on war, just off the campus of Dartmouth College, at Hanover Academy, for which credit is not given. Nevertheless, enough students have been found to take the course and enough teachers discovered to present it in addition to doing their regular work. The whole course is roughly divisible into three parts: first, the nature of war along its various fronts—political, propaganda, military and economic; second, the costs of war—economic, cultural and eugenic; third, the means of preserving peace, as related to the leading causes of war. There are to be eighteen evening meetings and sixteen speakers. The course is open without



fee to anyone who wishes to enroll. Most of the teachers took part in the last war and it is hoped that they will not try to glorify war. True history correctly taught would present no such mistake.

Dr. William E. Dodd, United States Ambassador to Germany, is of the opinion, "There is not a country in Europe where it would be possible to start a war if the people had been taught history accurately for one generation." Lady Astor, member of British parliament said, "Until people are educated, anything is likely to happen. When people really think, they do not want war." This is a consummation devoutly wished for and should be the ultimate design of the world of which Hegel speaks. History taught to this end would embody the concept of change, involving the idea of progress and the unity and continuity of cultural evolution.

There can be no ultimate national progress without international unity of effort. This means that no nation can escape its responsibility, even for the personal, social and economic security of every individual of every other nation. It is a case of "noblesse oblige," but as Robert Quillen has so aptly put it, "Ten thousand years of civilization, and still the leading nations are the ones best equipped to murder their neighbors."

There must be a feeling of individual economic and social security for all of the people of all countries before any country can be safe from racial nationalism and patriotic jingoism. Frank Gannett, newspaper publisher of Rochester, New York in explaining European dictatorships said, that "when people are hungry, they don't consider constitutions, liberties or freedom. They are willing to sacrifice their liberty for a mess of pottage." False patriotism is the last refuge of a conservative; jingoism makes a nation blind and therefore weak.

Thus it would seem that the world has more to fear from dictatorship which sacrifices all security. Harry Elmer Barnes, noted social scientist, has said, "Fascism in this country will not come in as a parade with flying banners, but will creep in on us and will be well entrenched when the looked for leader—some Huey Long the second—will arrive." I am of the opinion that people of the United States do not want a dictatorship of any kind, neither fascist nor communist.

Fascist Germany gives stern warning to the several groups in society that stand to lose their essential liberties when a fascist system prevails:

1. Labor organizations that struggle for a higher standard of living, and find independence a necessary condition for success in that struggle, are crushed in the "coördinating" processes of the fascist state.

2. The fascist state tolerates no rival political party, not even a "centrist" opposition party. The multiple-party system developed in the nineteenth

century is completely destroyed.

3. Racial minorities that stand outside the privileged class are the objects of poisonous hatred.

4. Science and education must bow to the medieval intellectual obscurantism of the fascist spirit which turns back the clock of human progress.

5. The church under fascism is ordered to subscribe to the tenets of pagan nationalism.

6. Liberals and intellectuals, like all others who hold the essential values of civil liberties, are forced into the fascist mold.

7. Finally, all pacifists, in the broad sense of the word, are compelled to witness the most extreme militarization of society, without the privilege of dissent.

It was the tradition of Germany, of Russia, and of Italy—the tradition of obedience to a kaiser, a czar, a king—which made it possible to set up nazism, communism and fascism. There are those who think that the American public has too keen a sense of humor to accept a dictatorship; I am not sure of that. Governor George H. Earle of Pennsylvania recently said, "Only by erecting the lightning rod of liberalism can we guard against the four horsemen of communism, socialism, fascism and dictatorship, now riding under the black clouds that are sweeping Europe."

Professor E. G. Conklin, president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and one of the world's most eminent biologists, thinks that social democracy holds out the greatest hope for the world. This is true, he believes, because it recognizes the reality of change. The failure to do this, Dr. Frank Kingdon, president of Newark University, asserts, has made more radicals in the United States than radical propaganda ever did.

Democratic socialism, Professor Conklin stated recently, avoids the extremes of communism, fascism and individualism and yet contains elements of all of them. As such, democratic socialism conforms to that inexorable biological principle of the necessity of preserving balance between contrasting principles and opposing forces. Fanatical extremes of individual freedom or of social regimentation, he continued, have no successful prototypes in biological or human history. Democratic socialism, then, best preserves this balance in the social order. It preserves freedom of experimentation. The scientific method of learning is by experiment, trial and error, and finally trial and success. There is no other path to progress. Many mistakes are made, but with freedom to experiment they will be eliminated. This is the great advantage of free government. In this sense it is true, as Lincoln said, that a free government is even better than a good government.

Dr. N. L. Englehardt of Columbia University asserts that the basic protection of American democracy is freedom of the nation's teachers to determine the

curriculum, to use the results of unbiased research, and to make adjustments to meet individual and social needs. The future of our democracy depends on the freedom of our schools, for our education must be for a changing social order.

In an address delivered at an annual conference on education at Bucknell University, Dr. Frank Kingdon said, "Either we are reaching the end of an era of imperialism or else the end of this epoch of civilization. Somebody ought to be telling our young people that this is so, and if the school does not do it, it is not preparing them for the life they will leave to live. The school must become a direct participant in events. If the educator does not enter public life, the community will be restricted to the limited resources of the business man, the politician and the demagogue. When the trained expert does not move into politics, somebody else less qualified does. The school must be free, for only as schools are free can they perform their ultimate service—that of creating human beings thrillingly alive." Thus teaching must now take place in terms of a design for living.

Conklin believes that democratic socialism is best for the education of the masses. The ultimate aim of all education whether of children or of nations should be to fit for freedom and coöperation; both children and nations must learn by experimentation. The spirit of science and the method of science must spread to society and government. Scientists must take a more active part in solving social problems. Such progress will be slow, but sure.

Communism, in so far as it is based upon the ideal that all men are equal in ability or character or social value, is scientifically false. In a democratic society all men are not and never will be equal in power, wealth or social value, but they do have equal rights

to life, liberty and opportunity. Fascism is no satisfactory solution to the problem of insuring life, liberty and opportunity to every person. It destroys the liberty of press, speech, thought and conscience; it censors science and religion, reduces the mass to the condition of robots and cannon fodder. It is based on war psychology; it does not educate the people for peace and freedom; it puts everything under a dictator who must maintain a reputation for supernatural grandeur. It may work well for a time, but always ends in disaster.

A concluding thought from Conklin stresses the need for social vision in our democracy. He says that rugged individualism in the sense of every individual for himself and the devil take the hindmost is no remedy for the ills of society. We have had too much of this in the past to be content and to go back to it now. It served well in a pioneer stage of society, but it will not work in a crowded state.

Many of the youth of Europe are looking to the United States to keep faith with democracy. They feel that much depends on America as to whether democracy will finally prevail all over the world. Democracy is to be judged, not by our unachieved ideals, but by the alternatives that are available.

We have much reason to believe that our ideal has not failed. We get along as we do in a democracy because under that system of government, extreme opinions tend to cancel each other leaving the balance of power with the intelligent, open-minded, middle-of-the-road people. The community is our business. The better and safer and happier we make it, the better our government will be, for we make the government; it does not make us. If the United States would really assume its responsibility, it could likewise help to make a much safer and a happier world.

## A Unit on Crime

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Obviously, the first and most absorbing subject that occupied the attention of our ninth grade class in civics at the beginning of this school year was the election of the President of the United States. So many questions centered in this topic that we were not able to consider anything else until after the election. No basic text is being used this year, but we are using *World Youth*. While looking up some questions raised in our study of the Presidency in this periodical we found a very interesting article on "Juvenile Delinquency and Crime." A demand from

some members of the class that we study about crime for our next unit raised the question as to whether or not it was of sufficient importance to devote several weeks of class time to it.

This question immediately called for critical thinking on the part of the class. Several important reasons were offered to prove that the subject was worthy of study. First, it was a subject of international importance since a conference had been called not long before to consider the international aspects of crime; second, it was of national importance not only because

of its cost in dollars, but because of its social cost; third, it was of regional importance because a New England Conference on Crime had been held in Boston, December 15-17, 1936, in which many prominent people in nearby Hartford participated; fourth, it was of vital concern in our own community and in our own lives because of the prevalence of crime everywhere; and last, it was a question about which we, as good citizens, ought to do some constructive thinking in order to produce definite action.

Having decided that the question was an important one, our next step was to outline a plan for study. The following topics were decided on: (1) Causes of Crime; (2) Kinds of Crime; (3) Detection of Crime; (4) Methods of Trial for Crime; (5) Punishment for Crime; (6) Care of Criminals; (7) Cost of Crime; (8) Prevention of Crime. A discussion arose as to whether a history of crime should be included in the unit. We agreed it was interesting and important enough for a committee to make reports on, but that time forbade a detailed study of this phase of the subject. This year we are attempting to measure the value of our study in civics by the following standard: "Does this work help me to see more clearly my duty as a citizen and does it offer any practical suggestions as to how I can make my community a better place in which to live?" The eight topics chosen seemed to meet this requirement.

Our library facilities are limited and some of the pupils who like to rely on a basic text raised the question as to where material could be found. We are accumulating in our classroom a social science library and a search in our civics books revealed over twenty references. This list, together with the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* gave us a fairly good start. Still we could not find enough reference material. One pupil discovered that in each issue of the *Reader's Digest* there are at least two articles on crime. We have been collecting back numbers of this periodical at school, and several pupils brought in their old copies for the reference table. One boy had sent some time before to the Department of Justice for several booklets; these he loaned to the class. Reports from our own Connecticut State Police Department were added. The daily and Sunday papers, together with current magazines provided a great deal of material. We had to establish one rule in our use of the press: "Do not offer an account from the newspapers for consideration unless you are able to show its direct relation to one of our eight topics."

As soon as our discussion started we found "movie fans" offering constant evidence from the latest pictures. Some of the more sensational pictures were found to be not true to facts. On the other hand, the better pictures served to illustrate concretely and graphically many points we wanted to learn. We adopted for our discussion of what had been seen

in the pictures the same rule that we applied to the daily papers.

Another unlooked-for development from our reading and discussion was the building of a new vocabulary. We found fifty-three terms which were new to most of the members of the class. We looked up their meanings in dictionaries and civics books and then worked out the best definitions. For instance, the word "racketeer" was not in our dictionary, nor was it well given in any of the civics books; yet it was a word that kept recurring in our discussions. Finally, we made up our own definition which did not quite satisfy the class. Then, we read an article in the *New York Times* about Mayor LaGuardia's campaign against racketeering; he gave a foolproof definition which was far better and more concise than the one we had adopted. We accepted this definition.

Our notebook work was another outcome. We decided that we needed a permanent record of our study and came to the conclusion that the best way to keep that record was in a notebook. However, this work was to include not only the outline and definitions, but as much original material as each pupil could gather. The notebooks proved very interesting from cover to cover, for some of the cover designs showed evidences of artistic ability, as well as clever planning. Original cartoons, picture graphs, bar and circle graphs, and charts were contributed by the artists of the class. Book reviews and reviews of magazine articles were presented by those who like to read. Some scientific members of the class demonstrated finger-printing; others worked out statistics to answer some of our questions. Accounts of radio programs such as those conducted by Warden Lawes were included in some of the notebooks. Some enterprising members wrote for additional material to various agencies. Some who had visited police barracks or courtrooms gave accounts of their first-hand experiences. One or two who had served as witnesses told their stories. We hope soon to spend a day in Hartford and are now planning our trip, including the points of interest that we hope to visit.

One of the pupils in the class knew Mr. William Barnes, secretary of the Connecticut State Prison Association, and suggested that he would be a good assembly speaker. At the invitation of our principal, Mr. Barnes spoke to us on the subject of "How to Keep Out of Jail." In a most fascinating manner he presented the causes of crime that might affect us in our own situation. His philosophy was to the effect that if we know what might lead us into trouble we should face those issues and not be overcome by them. An interesting class discussion followed his talk.

One boy, quite frank about everything, said, "Mr. Barnes summed up for us in forty-five minutes what it has taken us three weeks to find out. Why didn't



we have him speak at the beginning of the unit and save our time for other things?" He was greeted with a storm of protest, "How much do you think we would have gotten out of his talk if we hadn't done our work first? How much do you think we would have remembered if we didn't have to find out the answers for ourselves?" I do not know whether he was convinced, but I felt that the class realized the value of having a background of factual material in order to appreciate such a lecture.

In addition to a study of the eight points in the outline a number of questions were discussed. A list follows: (1) Does crime pay? (2) Are criminals intelligent? (3) Should capital punishment be abolished? (4) Do movies encourage crime? (5) Is crime more prevalent among the foreign born? (6) Has crime really increased? (7) Are criminals pampered too much? We have not found the answer to all of these questions. We do not believe that some can be answered by a simple yes or no. However, we are agreed that crime does not pay. A reason given by many members of the class was that criminals always get caught. While this is true we did not feel as though that ought to be the chief deterrent to crime. The New England conscience still rates high, even with the younger generation, and many felt that the torture inflicted by a guilty conscience was more potent than the fear of being caught.

Out of this study of crime has come suggestions for our next unit of work. For instance, in the study of the causes of crime we found that poor home conditions and bad environment were listed as of extreme importance. A study of the problem of proper housing conditions, of slum clearance, and of provision for the wise use of leisure time would be of value to the good citizen. The provisions offered by the state for the care of its unfortunate members of society would be another worth-while project. From such a discussion we decided the topic for the next unit.

I feel that this unit of work has been of value to the class in many ways. It has provided an opportunity for the pupils to take a "front page" subject and dig beneath the surface to see the social and industrial conditions which are responsible for a very costly evil in our country. One pupil said, "I have read articles on crime and have seen motion pictures about crime just for the thrill. Now I wonder what caused the criminal to start on his career of crime." It is evidence that this pupil is thinking. I wish that there were some means by which we could measure results in changed attitudes. We made a drive against certain unfair practices in school as a result of our study. Time alone will tell whether any real changes in attitudes have been accomplished.

This study, I feel, has been of personal value to each pupil, for its practical application leads to an

effort to help make the home, school, and community a better and safer place for ourselves and our associates. It has its appeal in the reading, the motion picture, and the radio programs that a child of this age is naturally interested in. The lack of artificial stimulus and the prevalence of genuine interest has been apparent through the unit.

Individual differences have been provided for throughout. The would-be artists have contributed; the research workers have had ample opportunity to delve into articles too complicated for the slower pupils; and the general mathematics students, who have been studying graphs, have had a chance to show their handiwork in plotting the costs and other aspects of crime. Since I have a part of the group in English as well as in civics we have read in our study of "Literature and Life," many stories, poems, and essays dealing with various phases of crime. This procedure has made our work both in English and civics more meaningful. It has been encouraging to see some of the pupils, who were lost in a maze when trying to follow the complicated machinery of electing a President, blossom forth into real participants in the discussion of means of crime prevention. After all, some time in the future we may have a more simple means of electing the President, but the question of crime prevention is a serious one, a present one, and a problem that is always vital.

#### VOCABULARY

- |                  |                          |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. crime         | 28. piracy               |
| 2. misdemeanor   | 29. fraud                |
| 3. felony        | 30. abduction            |
| 4. perjury       | 31. delinquency          |
| 5. bigamy        | 32. kleptomaniac         |
| 6. forgery       | 33. pyromaniac           |
| 7. arson         | 34. sadists              |
| 8. robbery       | 35. racketeering         |
| 9. burglary      | 36. rogues' gallery      |
| 10. kidnapping   | 37. third degree         |
| 11. manslaughter | 38. bertillon            |
| 12. murder       | 39. solitary confinement |
| 13. assault      | 40. warden               |
| 14. blackmail    | 41. plaintiff            |
| 15. racketeer    | 42. defendant            |
| 16. homicide     | 43. prosecuting attorney |
| 17. suicide      | 44. grand jury           |
| 18. libel        | 45. warrant              |
| 19. vice         | 46. bail                 |
| 20. sin          | 47. preliminary hearing  |
| 21. tort         | 48. { district attorney  |
| 22. embezzlement | { public prosecutor      |
| 23. speculation  | 49. alibi                |
| 24. indictment   | 50. jury                 |
| 25. treason      | 51. cross examination    |
| 26. swindling    | 52. verdict              |
| 27. larceny      | 53. sentence             |

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## Notes and Note Taking in High School Social Studies

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Notes and notebooks! What a dismal page in the story of teaching the social studies! I have seen many varieties of note-taking practices, all equally burdensome to teacher and student and most of them equally functionless. The most common use of notes is to check on outside reading or to keep a record of class summaries. In the first case the check is very unsatisfactory to the teacher and at best is only an exercise in copying for the pupil. It is a game that seems to encourage dishonesty and inspire hatred for supplementary reading. Class notes are in most busy-work and are usually marked solely on neatness. The difficulty is of course that the note-taking of the college and university is aped, and the saddest element in the situation is that the note-taking in college is as a rule just so much wasted time.

In spite of all this, a technique of taking and using notes is a highly valuable acquisition for any high school student. The laboratory method, the discussion technique, the emphasis on individual differences—and all other modern methods of teaching are greatly facilitated by a system of a note taking. The point is, however, that notes are to be used daily as tools and not that they become a burdensome assignment. Materials gathered from a wide range of books must be filed, organized and made available for instant use in connection with some argument, problem or activity. The emphasis is on command of evidence. The need for notes is strongly felt by the student when he realizes that he cannot hold in his head all of the pertinent facts which are of importance in accomplish-

ing some purpose in which he is interested. He is soon convinced that power and efficiency in a given situation demands that definite information be at his finger tips. His unsupported statements are constantly challenged and he feels righteous indignation when his pertinent suggestions are ignored by his classmates and teachers. He is also constantly being questioned concerning the sources of his information, or the authority for his statements.

Then, too, in the process of assimilation there is a real need for the study of parallel ideas, evaluations, interpretations and facts. Quotations from several books should be arranged so that they can be viewed simultaneously. They should be mulled over in various sequences. Supplementary and contradictory statements must be assembled and spread out before the eyes of the seeker of truth. The actual mechanical manipulation, the shuffling of a well selected group of notes on a single problem, may suddenly reveal to the questioning student an illuminating pattern or a new interpretation. The process of assimilation is largely a matter of giving material an organization. Materials are assimilated when the pupil has himself related them, not when he understands the outline of someone else. In this process of giving an organization to material there must be a great deal of back and forth consideration of all the important facts bearing on the topic. The sequence or the organization of a particular author or text must not dominate. The notes represent the bricks from which the finished structure is built, but the building process

must be individual or the material is memorized and not assimilated.

When a pupil doesn't know how to take notes or how to use them, he progresses very slowly in the mastery of a topic or unit. He may read a great deal and he may have a high intelligence quotient. But without notes he usually takes the organization or interpretation of the first or fullest or clearest account which he reads. He may supplement this by some additional details, but in the main he will never organize the material for himself. This task of really arriving at understandings can be accomplished by the very gifted and thoughtful individual by the mere reading in sequence a number of accounts, but for the average high school pupil it cannot be done in this manner. The technique of using notes is an essential tool in assimilation. The growth in this ability, and the accompanying self-confidence, initiative, and interest shown is surprising to both teacher and pupil.

Notes should also be used in connection with any socialized procedure. The discussion will not degenerate into meaningless chatter if evidence is expected for every generalization. The shallow but aggressive student who has been accustomed to dominate the group merely by virtue of a loud mouth and an empty head will lapse into beneficent silence when his bluff is called by a request for his data. I do not mean that the discussion should degenerate into a mere exercise in note reading; but I do mean that the student should come to the group armed with the most important data which he has been able to glean, and that this data should be in such form that they may be submitted to supplement the oral statement. The pupil may have a good idea which he cannot make clear to the group by his unsupported statement. The evidence presented in his notes may clear up the whole situation.

It is easy to gather from the above that there should be a *system* in note taking. Each note must be a unit for the purpose for which it was taken. It must be in such form that it can be arranged in various combinations with other notes. It must be in such form that it can be filed. It must be a slip or loose-leaf type. It must have various marks of identification and interpretation, so that its nature is apparent after it is cold. It should be taken with some definite problem in view. It should be taken on material which the pupil feels he is going to need as evidence. It should not be on material which the pupil can easily remember, or which is not important enough to need accurate support. It is important that a uniform method be adopted and maintained. There should never be a note-book, but always a box or drawer in which each student can file his notes.

A note system is of the greatest aid in building up bibliography. What we wish to develop in the

student is command over social studies material. He should know what kind of evidence is available and where it is found. He should have many ideas and impressions but he should also have the attitudes and information which will cause him to go to the established and authoritative factual material to back his generalizations and impressions. He should decidedly develop a bibliographical sense. A part of every discussion should center on the source of the evidence used. The names of publications and of authors should constantly be heard in the classroom. On each note there is a reference and it is the reference that makes the note authentic and authoritative. The natural tendency with the student will be to state his reference the first thing in support of any contention.

In the laboratory method, notes are just as essential. Here they form the solid nucleus upon which the superstructure grows. They form also the best basic record of the achievement of the pupil over a period of time. The same set of notes may suggest more than one piece of work. A chart, an imaginary diary, or a piece of dramatization may be made, or a set of cartoons may be produced. The notes may be used as the basis of the personal consultation of the pupil with the teacher. "Bring your notes and we will talk over your work," may be the invitation which will enable the teacher to stimulate and inspire the student. Many interesting suggestions of problems and activities will readily present themselves in such a conference. Further materials to be combed over are eagerly sought after, when they can be reduced to appropriate notes to fill a gap in the pupil's research.

Incidentally, there is a great deal of unfortunate connotation about the word "research." It is in very bad repute with those who teach children. Such should not be the case! If we expect to continue to live in a democracy we must make everyone a research worker. All must learn to find and know the truth. Techniques must be developed for searching out evidence and for bringing tested evidence to bear upon the solution of problems. This, and this only, is the true meaning of research.

Notes are not alone for the graduate student or so-called research worker, but they are a tool for every citizen. The housewife has learned to keep a file of recipes rather than stuff the old cook book with newspaper clippings on salads or Aunt Martha's scribbled directions for making the turkey tender. The doctor and the dentist file the case histories of their patients and every business man must have a systematic filing system. There is so much information of an accurate nature which no one can be expected to remember, but which is sorely needed at certain times. There are so many lines of study and so many problems that face the average citizen. Concerning these, it pays in many ways to have an efficient note system.



# Rural-Urban Differences and Their Amelioration

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## THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSPORTATION, COMMUNICATION, AND POPULATION MOBILITY

The "cat-calls" of "hay-seed" and "pull the straw out o' yer ears" with which the city urchin greeted his country cousin when the latter came to town twenty-five years ago have been silenced. The gang rushes of the city kids on some stray country "rube" do not, today, disturb the tranquility of the American urban centers.

The physical differences between urbanite and ruralist have disappeared. The country youngster's manner of speech, gait, and dress no longer differentiate him from the town lad. The drawl, shuffle, and spattered dungarees of his parents are rapidly disappearing from the village and city streets.

Today, except geographically, it is quite impossible to find a visible line of demarcation between the rural and urban groups. Yet, one cannot mingle with the two for any length of time and not become acutely aware of an invisible line between them. The physical differences have vanished, but the psychological differences are still pretty much in evidence everywhere.

This is due, no doubt, to the cultural lag in the rural and urban populations. It seems that it is more pronounced in the rural groups than in the urban. The lags are due to the customs, habits, traditions, and mores of the respective classes. The fact that rural people have fewer contacts, are by occupation essentially individualists, and are usually firmly attached to a neighborhood organization or institution may account for the lag being more in evidence in their case.

In spite of this cultural lag there has gradually evolved a marked diffusion and similarity of interests and needs in these two divisions of our population. It is conceivable that they may eventually have coincident or very nearly coincident attitudes and reactions.

The tremendous advances made in transportation and communication since the turn of the century have loomed large in breaking the barriers between ruralist and urbanite. These have facilitated intercommunication and exchange of ideas with a resultant improvement in understanding. They have made pos-

sible greater fluidity in the population and more frequent movement. "Staticity" promotes the perpetuation of traditions and ideals; mobility scatters them to the four winds and pollinates the old with new.

Except in those geographically and culturally isolated sections, as the western plains and southeastern mountain regions, there are few youngsters today who have not trekked to the nearby city before the junior high school age. They, and often their dads, are as interested in, and know almost as much about university football as the sports writer on the metropolitan daily. Depressing the starter or turning a dial whisks them across neighborhood and state boundaries at fifty miles per hour or 186,000 miles per second.

## IMPORTANCE, CHARACTERISTICS, CLASSIFICATION, FUNCTIONAL PURPOSES AND RELATIONSHIPS OF INSTITUTIONS

The amelioration of rural-urban differences can be effected by a mutual understanding of the past, and a comprehension of the present problems peculiar to each. Since the rural citizen has been largely an individualist, and since the nature of work in the urban areas has demanded compromise and coöperation with others, it seems logical that the latter should take the initiative in effecting a two-way infiltration of ideas, attitudes, principles, and practices.

All peoples, past and present, savage and civilized, tend to coagulate along organizational and institutional lines. It is easier to reach an individual or a group to accomplish a purpose if one follows one of these channels; and this approach would seem like the best and easiest way to unify and fuse the interests of two such diverse groups as rural and urban elements of the population.

Anyone who has worked with organizations in the smaller towns is soon brought face-to-face with the "spread-eagle" nature of many of them. The natural result is much duplication of services and dissipation of effort. Eventually, this can have but one conclusion—competition, then rivalry, and finally an open break. This duplication is not peculiar alone to rural or small town organizations. But the problem is more acute in the small community than it is in the city for several reasons: (a) The number of organizations

is more limited; (b) their membership is smaller; and (c) all contacts, individual and group, are closer and more intimate.

Perhaps much of this overlapping in the rural sections can be attributed to a dearth of intelligent and wise leadership. It is usual, and no doubt natural, for each to try to make his charge the most outstanding. This frequently means attempting too much and doing it all in a mediocre manner.

The difficulty seems to lie in the fact that most rural leaders do not take cognizance of the fact that their respective organizations have one primary function and perchance, one or more related minor ones.

Recognition of primary functions and a willingness to compromise can do much toward bringing about harmony among several organizations. For example, the school should recognize that the annual or semi-annual coöperative creamery meeting is a major event in the functioning of the business groups. Hence the schools should adjust their program of events to meet the other. In addition it should offer to supply musical, dramatic, and discussion numbers for the program.

In other words the various activities should also aim to supplement the work of each other wherever possible. Supplementing and compromising instead of duplicating and competing will go a long way toward ameliorating rural community activities. In some instances all organizations could combine their resources to promote a community-wide enterprise.

It is absolutely impossible for villages or towns to effect a spirit of unity and camaraderie with the adjacent country-side unless they are completely harmonious and not split up into rival factions themselves.

And that is not all. Each group must be in step with the times and at the same moment have its fingers sensitive to the pulse of its own community and surrounding neighborhoods. How many churches have disappeared because of an out-worn, evangelistic dogma, unembellished by such modern innovations as cards, dancing, and parties for young and old, probably never will be known. Likewise the school that doesn't enrich its curricular offerings and "pep up" its co-curricular program will find its tuition student-body going elsewhere. The same holds true for the business aggregations that do not bring new ideas of merchandising to the local storekeepers.

Each village organization must recognize the prerogatives of the others. A sort of unofficial community calendar of scheduled events conduces to this end. People, new to the village, should be advised that the first Monday of the month, let us say, is reserved exclusively for the "Reading Club"; that Thursday night every week is for church activities; Fridays are held inviolable for the school functions. Of course, some conflicts may arise, but every effort should be made to shift or cancel all but one if at all possible.

Everyone should have a copy of the scheduled events of all organizations in the village.

The means which any community can take to integrate the activities of the village and the surrounding neighborhoods may be grouped under five heads.

1. Activities general in character that are scheduled for the village and would interest all ages of people with varying backgrounds.
2. Outlying neighborhood activities in which the village folk participate.
3. Special village events sponsored by various institutions to interest the people from nearby country places.
4. Activities sponsored by village organizations for neighborhood affairs and available to them on request.
5. Informal contacts by village leaders in neighboring centers and with residents there.

The following lists are by no means complete or exhaustive; they are merely indicative of what has and can be done. They appear to be steps in the right direction and offer puissant possibilities for village-town neighborhood integration. It will be conceded that such a program is more apt to be initiated by a village of 1,000 people than by one of 5,000. The possibilities in the latter case are really much broader if advantage is taken of them.

A few of the projects of a general community nature that can be sponsored are:

1. Community (including neighborhood) Christmas parties.
2. Community swimming and skating.
3. Farm group gatherings.
4. Turkey releases.
5. Ball games.

A special effort must be made by many people in the village to keep a close contact with the neighboring peoples. The writer has traveled five to ten miles to find that the large crowd in attendance at a rural program was twenty-five to fifty per cent residents of the village whence he came. It is needless to say that this does much to cement the gradually unifying spirit. A few things in which the town-folk can participate are:

1. Chicken pie suppers.
2. Church suppers and special programs.
3. School programs.
4. Agriculture and business meetings.
5. School and neighborhood plays and programs.

Too often the relations between the open country areas and the settled sections revolves around the economic aspects only. This is a serious shortcoming. It does not make for intimacy, and may pack a lot of dynamite. The several town and village agencies should attempt to provoke the interest of the ruralists in other phases of village life:

1. Church:
  - a. Programs by rural neighborhood groups.
  - b. Special young peoples' nights.
  - c. Rural recreational programs.
2. Business:
  - a. Band concerts by neighborhood bands.
3. Social Service:
  - a. Scout memberships to include many country boys and girls.
  - b. 4-H Club meetings in the village high school.
  - c. American Legion sandlot ball games.
4. School:
  - a. Programs including rural school and adult groups.
  - b. P.T.A. programs rotated by neighborhoods and hamlets.
  - c. Dramatics, musicales, ping-pong and kiten ball.

Some of the things sponsored by the village organizations to be put on in the outlying districts might include:

1. Vocal and instrumental numbers.
2. Talks and demonstrations by special teachers: agriculture, home economics, music, commercial.
3. Addresses; discussion leaders.

Informal contacts with various neighborhood groups and individuals can be made at odd times dur-

ing the year by the clergy, school superintendent, business and professional men and women. The villagers should be insistent that the ruralists be active in the activities and organizations of the village-neighborhoods.

#### CONCLUSION

To recapitulate in part, we have pointed out that the integration of rural and urban peoples can best be effected, perhaps, through the established institutions and organizations. This should be initiated by the villages and towns. These efforts should be sincere and follow the social as well as the economic line of approach. First, however, it will be necessary for village organizations to work harmoniously together without duplication of effort, and assume that intra-community and intercommunity compromises must follow if their program is to be successful. Each activity will have to describe its own sphere and stress its major function, and as a corollary, respect the prerogatives of the others. All must recognize that outmoded practices mean decay.

The integration of rural-urban populations in the United States on bases somewhat akin to those found in some of the foreign countries would be mutually profitable to all, and would have a socially and economically ameliorative effect. It is neither difficult nor impossible.

## United States Paper Money as an Aid in Teaching American History

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The potential value and need of United States paper money as an aid in American history classrooms is quite evident when one realizes that not a large number of students, teachers, or American history textbook writers have a knowledge of the direct relationship of paper money to various topics in American history. This is a poor reflection on many history teachers who stress the utilization of available realities, but fail to utilize some very important realities within their reach. One writer on methods of teaching history refers to a teacher who was so blind as to discuss Doric and Ionic columns with her classes without calling their attention to such columns at the entrance of the school building. Such negligence may

be compared with the failure to utilize the educational opportunities afforded by United States paper money. How many teachers know whether greenbacks, in the specific sense of the word, are in circulation? How many know what their real title is? How many know what paper money was originally issued in accordance with the provisions of the Bland-Allison Act?

The concern here, however, is why they have been ignorant of the relationships between United States paper money and various important history topics, and how they can utilize these realities. In regard to the former, one of the earliest and most fundamental reasons, perhaps, is a federal statute (Barnes' Federal Code, section 9874) which states as follows:



"It shall not be lawful to design, engrave, print, or in any manner make or execute, or to utter, issue, distribute, circulate, or use, any business or professional card, notice, placard, circular, handbill, or advertisement in the likeness or similitude of any bond, certificate of indebtedness, certificate of deposit, coupon, United States note, Treasury note, gold certificate, silver certificate, fractional note, or obligation or security of the United States which has been or may be issued under or authorized by any Act of Congress heretofore passed or which may hereafter be passed; or to write, print, or otherwise impress upon any such instrument, obligation, or security, any business or professional card, notice, or advertisement, or any notice or advertisement of any matter or thing whatever. Whoever shall violate any provision of this section shall be fined not more than five hundred dollars."

Another reason is the inclination of authors to be vague and general when discussing monetary legislation and related events. There is little reason why they should use such a general term like "treasury note" when they are writing about a United States note or a silver certificate. Such vagueness is particularly evident in connection with the greenback. Rarely does an author inform the reader that the greenback is none other than the note bearing the title "United States Note" of which the current \$2 or \$5 denomination may be in one's wallet. Such vagueness exists in textbooks used in schools everywhere.

The teachers in turn often fail to use chalk sketches, the money itself, or identifying descriptions with which to aid the pupil. The test of the clarity of class discussion pertaining to monetary legislation and events related thereto would be the ability of the pupil to distinguish one type of paper money from another. Under present teaching procedures it is probable that few, if any, pupils could do this. If paper money or chalk sketches were used along with the discussion, the abstractness would be minimized and the pupils would be able to recognize various notes immediately. Thereafter, the notes would have significance to the pupil and would bear certain historical associations. In so far as the use of chalk sketches is concerned, they could be used when the group is too large for direct observation of the notes or when the currency is not available.<sup>1</sup> Simple diagrams that show the title and its location on the note are sufficient.

The paper money can be used as an instructional aid in a number of ways of which the following are important: First, it can be used as the concrete outcome of certain events or legislation instrumental in its origin or further issues. After the class has studied the causes and provisions of the Bland-Allison Act, the teacher should bring forward with appropriate comments a silver certificate as an example of the

type of paper money issued under authority of the act. In this manner the class learns to associate and recognize the silver certificate as the paper money originally issued in accordance with the legislation and related events under discussion. The silver certificate could be brought forward similarly and its relationship commented upon in connection with the study of the Gold Reserve Fund, the Pittman Act, the Agricultural Act, and the World War debts, or merely confined to the originating acts and events. The same procedure could be applied to the following notes and topics, and especially to the acts and events originally responsible for the issue and designated by an asterisk:

#### United States Notes

1. Act of Feb. 25, 1862\*
2. Civil War Finance.
3. Greenback Party.
4. Gold Reserve Fund.
5. Specie Resumption Act.
6. Greenback or Legal Tender Cases.
7. Gresham's Law.
8. Soldiers' Bonus.

#### National Currency

1. National Banking Act.\*
2. State Bank Note Decline.
3. Bond Issues.
4. Federal Reserve Act.

#### Treasury Note of 1890

1. Sherman Silver Purchase Act.\*
2. Repeal of Sherman Act.
3. Gold Reserve Act.
4. Panic of 1893.

#### Fractional Paper Currency

1. Suspension of Specie Payments.
2. Gresham's Law.

#### Federal Reserve Bank Note

1. National Banking Act.
2. Federal Reserve Act.\*
3. Pittman Act.

#### Federal Reserve Note

1. National Banking Act.
2. Federal Reserve Act.\*

Second, the currency can be used as a concrete illustration of various terms. For example:

#### United States Note:

Greenback  
Fiat money  
Legal tender  
Note  
Soft money  
Convertible money.

Examples of other terms that are applicable to various notes are:

Obsolete	Non-convertible
Script	Full reserve
Shinplaster	Fractional currency
Certificate	

Third, the paper money bears illustrations that are of historical interest. The following are some of the illustrations on current or often obtainable obsolete issues:

George Washington	W. P. Fessenden
Thomas Jefferson	W. M. Meredith
Abraham Lincoln	Samuel Dexter
Alexander Hamilton	R. J. Walker
Andrew Jackson	W. H. Crawford
General McPherson	Indian Chief Onepapa
General Thomas	Landing of the Pilgrims
Secretary Stanton	Monticello
Martha Washington	Lincoln Memorial
U. S. Grant	United States Treasury
William Windom	White House
James Garfield	Great Seal of the United States
Benjamin Harrison	

Fourth, the paper money can be used in problem-solving situations. After appropriate topics have been studied and discussed, the class can be confronted with sketches or the currency itself and asked to solve problems like the following:

- a. Which one of these notes is a greenback?
- b. What act was originally responsible for the issue of:
  1. Greenbacks?
  2. Treasury Notes of 1890?
  3. Silver Certificates?
  4. National Currency?
  5. Federal Reserve Bank Notes?
- c. Which one of these notes was originally issued in accordance with or as a result of:
  1. The National Banking Act?
  2. The Bland-Allison Act?
  3. The Sherman Silver Purchase Act?
  4. The Act of Feb. 25, 1862?
  5. The Federal Reserve Act?
  6. Civil War emergency?
- d. Assuming gold and silver as being equally desirable, rate the following notes according to the relative amounts of gold or silver backing each:
  1. Gold certificate.
  2. United States note.
  3. National currency.
  4. Silver certificate.
  5. Federal Reserve note.
  6. Federal Reserve Bank note.

<sup>1</sup> Due to the nationalization of gold, at present gold certificates cannot be used.

## News and Comment

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### PUBLIC FORUMS

Dr. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, has been encouraging public forums for adult citizens as "an organized quest for the understanding of public affairs." Since his experience with the Des Moines forums which he launched when superintendent of the Des Moines schools, Dr. Studebaker has felt that such forums can be one of the greatest contributions of "the American system of public education to the great cause of democratic freedom by providing adequate opportunities for our citizens to study, debate, and discuss the important issues affecting the lives and welfare of the people." For such understanding is imperative under a democratic government.

This form of adult education, largely under the

leadership of Dr. Studebaker and the Office of Education, is rapidly becoming a nation-wide movement. As such it is called to the attention of social studies teachers. *A Step Forward For Adult Civic Education* describes the purposes and tells the story of the movement and presents plans for its future. The booklet is Bulletin, 1936, No. 16, United States Department of Interior, Office of Education. (28 pp.) It can be secured from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., for ten cents.

### EVALUATING AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Reference was made last month, in "News and Comment," to the study now being made of the secondary schools of the country, with the financial support of the General Education Board. In the North

*Central Association Quarterly* for January 1937 the plans for the project are reviewed and their progress reported. This investigation is of great interest to teachers and in all likelihood, will be of great value to all secondary schools.

Four years ago this spring, the North Central Association named a committee to study the question of standards and criteria for use in accrediting secondary schools. Within a few months the project had been expanded, and the committee was enlarged to include representatives from all sections of the nation. The committee undertook to find out (1) what were the characteristics of a good secondary school, (2) practicable methods for evaluating a school's effectiveness, (3) how a good school develops into a better one, and (4) how regional associations can stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth.

At the outset it was necessary to get the views of leading men and students in the field of secondary education. From them could be developed tentative criteria for judging schools. This compilation was made in 1935. Meanwhile it was decided to study the schools themselves in five areas of activity: pupil, staff, plant, educational program, and administration. It was at this time that a preliminary grant of funds was received from the General Education Board, subsequently increased so that the whole project could be carried through to completion.

To work out, criticize, and revise the criteria for use in the five areas of school activity, about six hundred specialists, high school principals, classroom teachers, university professors and others intimately concerned with secondary schools were called upon. This task is being done during the present school year, and the criteria are being applied to two hundred representative schools in all sections of the country, public and private, white and colored, large and small, rural and urban, boarding schools and day schools, etc. Next year will be devoted largely to studying the results of this year's canvass.

#### *Atlantic Monthly* TEXTBOOK PRIZE

Nearly three years ago the Atlantic Monthly Press, in association with Little, Brown and Company, Boston publishers, established a textbook prize of \$4000 to encourage "the writing of fresh and original textbook material." The first contest, in 1935, was won by Elizabeth Crowe Hannum with her English textbook *Speak! Read! Write!* The second award, for 1936, has been given to Dr. Eugene Hilton, principal of the Allendale School, Oakdale, California. His book, *Problems and Values of Today*, was adjudged "the best basal textbook submitted in the field of Social Studies for the Senior High School."

Dr. Hilton formerly was supervisor of social studies of the Oakland schools, and he designed his

book for students studying contemporary problems of an economic, civic, or social nature. The judges who made the award were: Dean J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan; Mr. W. W. Theisen, assistant superintendent of schools, Milwaukee; and Ellery Sedgwick, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

#### LAND OF OPPORTUNITY

The quarterly surveys of American public opinion being made by *Fortune* have more than passing interest. The seventh survey was reported in the issue of *Fortune* for January, 1937. Nine propositions were submitted to a carefully selected group representative of the various shades of opinion in all sections of the country. A synopsis of the results on three of the propositions will illustrate national opinion, according to this poll.

With the proposition that America still is the land of opportunity, 57.6% agreed, although frontiers are gone and a terrible depression is just beginning to lift from the country. Nearly three-fifths of those interviewed believed that a young man of ability and ambition, perhaps with the aid of a little luck, could rise to \$5000 a year and ownership of his home. 34.7% definitely thought that the opportunity to achieve such a goal in the United States is now dead. It is instructive to consider these beliefs in the face of the fact that, before the depression, less than ten per cent of the families of the nation had \$5000 a year and less than half the families owned their homes. City dwellers were more hopeful than farmers. Even the poor often took the position that it is more a matter of the individual's own qualities than of the economic system whether he rises in the world or not.

Three-fifths (60.3%) agreed that the nation is passing out of the depression. But 31.9% said no, and pointed to strikes, droughts, and floods as evidence that the revival is not yet here. It is interesting to note that two-thirds of those who believe the depression is over assented to the proposition that this is still a land of opportunity, while half of those who think the depression is still with us also were sure that opportunity is dead in this country.

On the question of public attitude toward strikers on picket duty, it is perhaps astonishing to find that 60.6% of those interviewed did not feel strongly enough to take sides with either contestant. Only 17.6% sympathized with strikers, while 21.8% sympathized with the place of business being picketed, and 28.5% felt that both sides probably were to blame.

#### RED CHINA

Since Chiang Kai-shek rejected Soviet aid and sought to stamp out communism in China ten years ago, a Chinese communist force has kept itself alive in the country. Three years ago the Chinese commu-



nists fought their way up to the Chinese northwest, where they are now entrenched. Hitherto no outsider has been able to get into the Red area, study conditions there, and return. Mr. Edgar Snow, young American newspaper correspondent, has succeeded, returning from an investigation of several months during which he talked with leaders, studied conditions, and secured pictures. For the first time authentic views are available of the Chinese communist area. In *Asia*, for February, 1937 (pp. 74-75), are two of Mr. Snow's photographs, and in *Life* for January 25 and February 1, 1937, are forty-one pictures. Explanatory comments accompany Mr. Snow's photographs.

#### GREATER TEXAS AND PAN AMERICAN EXPOSITION

Dallas, Texas, is busily preparing to entertain ten million guests this year, between June 12 and October 31, in her Greater Texas and Pan American Exposition. The Exposition "will extend fellowship to neighboring nations, thus furthering the cementing of the national policy of 'Be a Good Neighbor.'" A great Latin American exhibit is planned with displays from governments and individual exhibitors. The story of the winning of freedom by Latin American republics will be presented in the "Cavalcade of the Americas," similar to the story of Texan history portrayed in the Texas Centennial Exposition last year in the "Cavalcade of Texas."

Other features of the Exposition are planned further to bring together the people of the Americas in mutual friendship and understanding. Arrangements are being completed also to entertain visitors with concerts, shows, athletic contests, and the like. School children from the southwest are to have special low travel rates and housing accommodations.

#### NATIONALISM AND INTERNATIONALISM

What are schools and other educational organizations doing to foster a wholesome nationalism and develop international understanding? The *Journal of Educational Sociology* devoted its March, 1936 issue to answering that question. This year, in its February number, *The Journal of Educational Sociology* presents a similar summary of the activities of "Non-school Agencies in the Development of Nationalism and Internationalism." The topics discussed are: media of propaganda, principally the press, the radio, and the motion picture; unity of purpose and diversity of method, in molding international attitudes; nationalism and internationalism through the churches; the rôle of labor organizations in fostering attitudes of nationalism and internationalism; commercial organization attitude toward international trade; and patriotic societies (including organizations that publish material).

Since the attitude of the child is produced by many agencies besides schools, the coöperation of them all is essential, as well as appreciation of the contributions of each to the problem. A later issue of the periodical, dealing with the subject, "Youth in a Modern World," will take up the many nonschool agencies which are exclusively concerned with young people.

#### NEW PROGRAM AT SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

The movement toward revising teacher training curriculums continues. Only recently Harvard University inaugurated a curriculum leading to a new degree, Master of Arts in Teaching. Now, after two years of study and planning, the School of Education of Syracuse University announces a new program for the training of public school teachers. To quote Dean Harry S. Ganders:

Through the two years of professional preparation required by the school of education, the new program will call for complete integration of educational theory with a wide variety of practice. The student will not only study about children; he will actually study children at work and play in school and community groups.

Genuine problems of curriculum administration and instruction will be raised through continuous observation and experience in school and community. A constant effort will be made to close the gaps between theory and practice through appropriate lectures, seminars, and field projects. The student will not do less reading, research, and study. He will do more.

Education courses of the traditional type will give way to "units of work" centered about essential attitudes, skills, and knowledges important to effective service in the public schools. . . . Each student will be required to spend at least six consecutive weeks of actual teaching in public schools in central New York during the senior year."

#### LITERATURE ON SOCIAL SCIENCES AND GEOGRAPHY 1936

A bibliography of books and periodical literature appearing in 1936 in the social sciences and in geography is given in *The School Review* for February, 1937 (pp. 134-139). Dr. Rolla M. Tryon and Edith P. Parker assembled the lists for social science and geography respectively.

#### CONFERENCES IN SOCIAL STUDIES AND GUIDANCE

Syracuse University has arranged for two important conferences this summer. On July 15 and 16, a conference of teachers of English and the Social Studies is planned, emphasis being placed on the fact that

"English is a social study, perhaps the most important social study there is."

On July 23 and 24, a conference will be held on educational and vocational guidance, a movement in which Syracuse University has pioneered. These conferences are annual features of the summer session of the university.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS OF NEW YORK

The Association of Social Studies Teachers of the City of New York is having its annual conference and luncheon on Saturday, May 8, 1937, on the Roof Garden of the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York City. The luncheon is a testimonial to Dr. John L. Tildsley, retiring assistant superintendent in charge of social studies.

The Association of Social Studies Teachers is a federation of the Association of Civics Teachers, the History Teachers Association and the Economics Teachers Association. Other organizations participating in this testimonial to Dr. Tildsley are the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers, the Association of Social Studies Chairmen, and the Social Science and Civics Sections of the New York Society for the Experimental study of Education. Among the honored guests will be City Chamberlain A. A. Berle, Commissioner Turner, Commissioner Marshall, Associate Superintendent Roberts, and Assistant Superintendents Ernst and Wright. Lucian Lamm, chairman of social studies at the Franklin K. Lane High School, is chairman of the committee on arrangements.

#### *Current History*

Beginning in March, *Current History* introduced a new section devoted to cultural trends. V. F. Calverton conducts the new department. Among other changes in *Current History* is the establishment of a new advisory editorial board to discuss editorial problems and policies. Its members are Dr. Ned H. Dearborn, dean of the division of general education, New York University; Frederick V. Field, secretary of the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations; Dr. Edward R. Hardy, associate editor of the *American Church Monthly*; Charles A. Hodges, professor of politics, New York University; Dr. David S. Muzzey, professor of American history, Columbia University; Dr. Harry A. Overstreet, head of department of psychology and philosophy, College of the City of New York; Dr. H. Horton Sheldon, professor of physics, New York University; Harry Tipper, executive vice-president of the National Foreign Trade Association; and Dr. H. Parker Willis, professor of banking, Columbia University.

#### NATIONAL LIFELINES

In the February, 1937 issue of *Current History* the

editors study the military, economic, and political lifelines of the leading nations of the globe, under the title, "National Lifelines." The nations taken up are Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, the Soviet Union, Japan, and the United States, and the discussion is illustrated with four maps. The possessions and conflicting interests of the nations are surveyed, the dangers to the lifelines of trade and communication are described, and the bearing of these matters upon international policies, alignments, and actions are explained. The article is helpful in disentangling the confusion of international events which are set forth in the daily news.

#### SALT

Hendrik Van Loon writes very entertainingly about salt in the February, 1937 issue of *Natural History*. He suggests that salt has played a larger part in the movements of peoples and in conquests than is commonly supposed. Mr. Van Loon gives many examples from various parts of the earth showing the rôle of salt in manners and customs and in religion. Twenty-one drawings from his pen adorn his article, and twenty-eight other pictures, chiefly photographs of the salt industry in many parts of the world today, accompany it. High school students of all ages will enjoy "The Story of Salt."

#### *Harper's Magazine*

George Soule, an editor of the *New Republic*, writes on "This Recovery: What Brought It? And Will It Last?" in the March number of *Harper's*. His discussion is non-technical, clear and simple. He examines some of the causes of the depression, some important factors contributing to the revival now under way, and he concludes with a few comments about the future. High school students will find Mr. Soule's presentation thought-provoking.

In the same issue of *Harper's* is an unusual article by two anonymous writers on the subject, "Facing the Facts on Housing." The discussion is very practical in its presentation of the tangle of problems comprising the housing problem, making very clear how industrial, political, financial, and psychologic elements are discouragingly intertwined. The authors are sure there is no short cut to the problem's solution nor a magical formula to solve it. They suggest a variety of practical steps which can be taken to ameliorate the housing situation of our own time.

#### CONGRESSIONAL DIRECTORY

For years, teachers and students alike have found the *Congressional Directory* a useful reference book. The official *Congressional Directory for the Seventy-fifth Congress* (first session), correct to December 20, 1936, is now available from the Superintendent of

Documents, Washington, D.C. Its price is one dollar. The Directory includes short biographies of all congressmen in the seventy-fifth Congress, the congressional committees, duties of government departments, bureaus, offices, and commissions.

#### THE SPIRIT OF THE PLAINS

Because producers of entertainment films have frequently employed painstaking research to insure historical accuracy in their pictures, history teachers have wished they could use portions of theatrical films to show students the dress, furniture, buildings, vehicles, and other features of life in the past. *The Spirit of the Plains* is a one reel, sound film (16 mm.) made up of scenes from such famous pictures as *The Covered Wagon*, *The Thundering Herd*, and *The Plainsman*. It portrays western life from the Civil War until the present. While it is not the perfect example of an educational film, it is hoped it is the forerunner of a series of films making available for schools the

valuable historical features in so many great non-educational pictures. The Bell and Howell Company, 1815 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, distribute *The Spirit of the Plains*.

#### HISTORICAL PICTURE COLLECTION

Dr. Otto Bettmann, while art librarian in the State Art Library of Berlin, became interested in compiling "A visual history of civilization from the works of the old and new masters and from illustrations found in books." He now has upwards of ten thousand photographs representing about four hundred classifications and covering the history of man since the Stone Age. Each photograph carries a statement of its source and references for further study where they are available. Much of the material is of interest to teachers, and inquiries will be answered if addressed to Otto Bettmann, 145 West 44th Street, New York City.

## Correspondence

Readers are invited to send in their ideas, experiences and opinions. Questions, also, will be welcome.

#### TO THE EDITOR:

There is a tendency in some quarters towards an integration of such subjects as history, geography, sociology, and economics in the junior high school into one class called social studies. Now any one of these subjects alone could be broken up into several other subjects. Take geography. Physical geography and political geography are quite opposed and might well be studied separately. Hitherto we have seldom thought of teaching history without breaking it up into divisions, such as United States history, English history, Canadian history, state history. Any one of those history fields is large enough to be broken up into smaller units. It is impossible to cover the ground of one of these subjects very thoroughly in a year. How far would we get if we tried to teach them all in that time? What we want, then, is not an integration of subjects but rather a disintegration.

The principle upon which this integration of social studies is based is that the subjects included are all related and so should be taught together instead of disconnected. The advocates of integration are afraid that the child will not see the relation between history and geography and the others unless they are taught together. This is a libel upon the child's intelligence.

Adults of today were taught history as history, geography as geography, etc., and they understand the relation between the different subjects. Is the child of today less intelligent than the child of yesterday? And has it never occurred to the advocates of integration that pupils might be shown the relation of the different subjects without reaching them together.

If we are to teach related subjects as though they were one subject, where will we draw the line as to what subjects we will include in our related group when that group happens to be social studies? Let us start with history. We can have little understanding of history without some knowledge of geography. If, then, we have brought in geography, we cannot neglect its principles, and the principles of geography amount to a physical science. That leads us to chemistry and physics. These cannot be handled without mathematics. Then don't forget the various branches of mathematics: arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, calculus, etc. Now since history deals with governments, we must include political science in our group. Governments are concerned with economics, so we must study that at the same time. As history deals with people, we must bring in sociology, and in that case we can't neglect psychology. The science of biology would also be necessary. And when we study people, we cannot overlook the thoughts of the various people, and so we must take into consideration



literature. Our picture will not be complete without art and music. We must study languages, of course, not only our own but others, because language is a very important thing in social intercourse, and that takes in grammar, etymology, spelling, etc. And as religion plays a great part in the development of a people, that must be included. And so by the time we get through building up our social studies class of related subjects, we have probably without exception all the studies to be pursued in the junior high school. That means that the social studies teacher must be one of the most learned men in the world if he is to succeed in his field. There is no room left for a mathematics teacher, no room for an English teacher, no room for a science teacher, no room for any other kind of teacher. It does away with the departmental system, which was one of the most forward steps education has ever made. If we are to integrate the subjects and make one class out of them all, then we return to the system of having one teacher teach all the subjects in a grade.

I have done no more than follow the idea through to its logical conclusion in stating that all the subjects in the school would be included in the social studies class if we are going to have an integration of social studies. Mathematics is just as much related to history as is geography. If history occurs in *some* place, it also occurs at *some* time. It is a fact that there are dates in history, even if many people find it hard to remember them. We also find in history that someone journeyed so many miles, or that someone had so many horses, or that someone lived so many years. There were *thirteen* original colonies, Columbus had *three* ships, Washington was the *first* President, Jefferson paid \$15,000,000 for Louisiana.

How, may I ask, can all this material be presented *simultaneously*? Learning in all these fields is going on when pupils study geography one hour, history the next, literature the next, etc., and certainly under these circumstances they can see the relation of one subject to another. The charge that teaching the subjects separately gives the child the idea that there is no relation between them might have a half a leg to stand on if the same subject were taught all year; for instance, if the pupils studied geography, or history, or grammar for a semester and during that time studied nothing else but spent all day every day on one subject. Even so, they still might study a number of things without leaving the field. For instance, if the field were history, the pupils might take up the political history of the United States the first hour, the literary history the second hour, the social history the

third hour, the economic history the fourth hour, and even those divisions might be broken up into others.

Psychologists tell us that we can really do only one thing at a time, that while we may do several things at once, we can give complete attention to only one thing. If, then, there is an integration of subjects, one subject must be the center of interest; and if that is true, we would do better to teach the separate subjects, where each one is a center of interest, and bring in other things incidentally. While the main subject is history, there will be incidental learning in geography and other subjects. Thus the study of history will give something to the study of geography and the study of geography will give something to the study of history. In such a case both subjects will make a definite impression upon the student. Studying the subjects separately is organized learning.

We have chiropodists, chiropractors, oculists, dentists, and other doctors who are specialists, yet all the parts of the body are related. The eye, ear, nose and throat doctor is a specialist. But those parts are not distinct from the body. What would we be like without eyes, ears, noses, or throats? Do the advocates of integration favor integration here?

We eat breakfast, lunch, and dinner—three meals a day. Yet those meals are food, sometimes the same food (we usually have bread at every meal). Why not, I ask the integration proponents, integrate them too?

The chapters of a book are related. Why not read a little from each chapter instead of reading the chapters in succession?

The part of a moving picture are related. Why not show them all at once instead of showing the first reel first, the second reel next, etc.?

There are no textbooks written with the social studies integrated. It would be next to impossible to do so. There are many excellent textbooks in history, geography, and other subjects. Would it not more efficiently promote the ends of education to use the best materials we have?

Let us not fool ourselves. When we integrate the social studies and try to teach everything at once, we are really teaching nothing. The pupil becomes hopelessly confused. Of course, he does not say anything about this. But when the course is over, what does he know about history, geography, sociology, economics? Little more, if any, than he did before.

PERCY MADDUX  
State Normal School  
Bellingham, Washington

# Book Reviews and Book Notes

## GENERAL

*The Social Thought of the Ancient Civilizations.* By Joyce O. Hertzler. New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936. Pp. xvi, 409. \$4.00.

This is the latest volume in the McGraw-Hill Publications in Sociology under the editorship of Edward Byron Reuter, the well-known sociologist of Iowa State University, and the second in the series by the author, professor of sociology at the University of Nebraska, whose earlier book was titled *Social Institutions*.

The book aims to be a presentation of ancient Oriental thought in a purely objective way, in contrast with the viewpoint of most writers on the subject—religious, ethical, or literary. It is based entirely on documentary material which, in the case of the Egyptians, Babylonians, Assyrians and Hittites is largely available through archaeological excavations, while in that of the Persians, Hindus, Chinese and Hebrews it is known through direct transmission. To avoid the shortcomings of his predecessors in the field the author lets these documents tell their own story with little help by way of interpretation, comment, or theorizing. He regards his task as merely one of finding, collecting, selecting, and organizing the material furnished by the pre-Greek civilizations of the Orient, to form a background to present-day social science. Each people is introduced by a brief summary of their physical, racial and cultural background, their chief social institutions, and their political and economic history.

As the work is strictly that of a "social scientist" who is neither a philologist nor a historian, and who makes no historical or literary investigations, nor is concerned with the critical controversies of the Orientalists, but merely presents discoveries made by appropriate researchers in the field—an array of the best of whom is found in the footnotes—it necessarily is not free from historical mistakes, which are, in fact, fairly frequent. Thus his earliest historical date 4241 B.C. (p. 17) has recently been corrected to 4236 B.C., and many Egyptologists would bring the beginning of the Sothic calendar down a cycle further into the twenty-eighth century B.C.; Susa and Persepolis (p. 86) are not identical, but two widely separated towns; the Fourth and not the Third Dynasty of Egypt (p. 17) is the "Age of the Great Pyramids," the whole Pyramid period extending from the middle of the thirtieth century to the middle of the twenty-fifth B.C.; and the "Old Kingdom" (including

Dynasties I-VI) from the thirty-fifth century to c. 2400 B.C., and not (including only Dynasties III-VI) to 2631 B.C. (p. 18); nomarch (p. 20) is a Greek and not Egyptian title of a chief of an Egyptian province, being first used by Herodotus (Book II, p. 177); the date of Zoser, founder of the Third Dynasty, should be brought into the thirtieth century and not the thirty-second (p. 25); four lines are far too few to tell the story of the decline of Egypt from Ikhnaton's reign in the fourteenth century B.C. (p. 19), and the middle of the twelfth century rather than 945 B.C. marks the end; Medean (p. 146) should be Median; the Achaemenid house of Persia ended with the battle of Arbela, October 331, B.C. rather than with the death of Darius III, July, 330 B.C. (p. 146); and Alexander reached India in the fall of 327 rather than in 326 B.C. (p. 170).

Despite such mistakes the book is an excellent collection of the social thought of the ancient Orient. The accounts of the various law-codes is especially serviceable: Hammurabi's (pp. 85-103), Assyrian (pp. 121-123 and pp. 126-135), Hittite (pp. 123-126 and pp. 135-144), Persian (pp. 165-168) and Hindu (pp. 175-185). The discussion of the Golden (or Silver) Rule (pp. 344-346), "the most widespread of all social behavior formulas," is also excellent, negative in form till the time of Jesus, beginning with Amen-em-apt in Egypt c. 2200 B.C., and continuing through Babylonian, Persian, Indian and Chinese (Laotse, pp. 217-218; Confucius pp. 227-228) literatures. However, the statement that the "Golden Rule is not to be found anywhere in ancient Hebrew literature" (p. 345) outside the later Talmudic, is controverted by the famous saying of Hillel, "prince" of the Sanhedrim from c. 30 B.C. to A.D. 10—"What is unpleasant to thyself, that do not to thy neighbor." Similarly the Rule of Love occurs in Leviticus, XIX, 18, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself."

Many of the historical judgments are good; e.g. that Ashurbanipal's library discovered at Nineveh was not a purely Assyrian collection, but contains mostly earlier Babylonian lore (p. 120); that the homeland of the Aryans is unknown (p. 145); that the Hebrews borrowed much from neighboring peoples (pp. 260-262)—notably the two flood stories and the fall of man from the Sumerians, the originators of the deluge myths of the near East—the actual Mesopotamian flood proved at Ur by Woolley in 1923 being mentioned (p. 78 n. 3). However, the idea that Marathon, Salamis and Plataea "alone prevented Zoroastrianism from becoming possibly the supreme re-

ligion of Europe" (p. 147) is more than questionable.

There are two appendices (pp. 367-395), an excellent chapter bibliography (pp. 389-395) and a fairly good index (pp. 397-409). The work will prove a most convenient manual for many who are not primarily sociologists.

WALTER WOODBURN HYDE

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*The Theory and Practice of Socialism.* John Strachey, New York: Random House, 1936. Pp. 512. \$3.00.

John Strachey has done a remarkably successful piece of work in reinterpreting Marxian socialism in the light of recent historical developments, notably the Soviet experiment. The author is a British Marxist who is fully informed on the history of social evolution, as well as on socialist theory. He has chosen both Great Britain and the United States of America for his audience, which he keeps constantly in mind in every chapter. The purpose of the book is to prove the inevitability of socialism, following an acknowledged defeat of incapable capitalism, and to present a simple general program for socialist leadership.

Two main currents of thought run through the volume: capitalism, its origin, nature, weaknesses, and ultimate failure; socialism, its distinction from communism, its adequacy, and procedures for establishing it. These themes are treated in a strictly analytical manner, without the flavor of propagandism. The result is a dispassionate, judicial appraisal of facts and factors, and a restrained appeal for action. Minor issues are wisely set aside to give ample room for a thorough treatment of the great principles involved.

The author supports the following proposals: to emphasize the class struggle, to unite all Marxists in closely knit parties, to move soon for the replacement of capitalism by socialism, to develop the working-class movement in every direction. His analysis and wisdom render the volume worthy of the prize over all competitors in recent years that seek to perform a like service.

H. L. LATHAM

Western Military Academy  
Alton, Illinois

*History of Political Philosophy* (From Plato to Burke). By Thomas I. Cook. New York. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1936. Pp. 725. \$5.00.

Professor Cook, trained in the English academic mold, has written this textbook expressly for the American student. His apology for writing a new text on comparatively "static" material is that he aims to fill the need, which he feels is ever keenly present

to the American student, for a clear and concise introduction to this large field. His hope is that his volume may be used as a survey by the non-specialist, and as an introduction to the "cognoscenti" for those whose major interests will lie within the field.

The author's aim, in his presentation of the material, is analysis of the main currents of political thought in the period covered. The tendency in writing such a treatise is to use the thinkers who have been outstanding as "pegs" upon which to hang the thoughts at convenient intervals. The criticism of Professor Cook is that this does violence both to the thoughts and the thinkers. In this treatise the attempt is made to present the thinkers as living persons, frequently by no means mere mouthpieces of their times, yet nevertheless as strongly influenced by their immediate and more remote intellectual and physical atmosphere. A short biography of each thinker serves both to endow them with the human qualities of which they were possessed, and to sum up the environmental factors influencing their thoughts.

One feels that Professor Cook has, on the whole, succeeded admirably in sufficiently "popularizing" his thinkers to appeal to the less actively interested, and at the same time has been able to present a challenging analysis to the "embryo-specialists." His work indicates a thorough understanding of the principal figures treated, though he presents a somewhat abler picture of the later thinkers from Machiavelli through Montesquieu, Rousseau and Voltaire. At nearly every point one derives the impression that the author has made a gallant attempt to project himself and his readers into the spirit of the period under inspection, as free from modern prejudices as possible.

Especially helpful to students at all levels are the bibliographical notes at the end of each chapter. Comment is made on each volume recommended for further study, including the nature and contents of the works as well as their probable usefulness for various types of problems. A special chapter is devoted to American political thought for purposes of linking the whole work firmly to the present.

Students and teachers interested in an instructive reference book in political philosophy rather than a mere "manual" of political ideas, should find Professor Cook's volume most helpful.

RICHARD ATHERTON HUMPHREY

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Current Social Problems: a Survey of Contemporary Problems in their Relation to Education.* By William Withers, Agnes Snyder, and Carlton Qualey. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xv, 302. \$2.80.

This is a study-guide to contemporary economic, social, and political problems. The basis of the out-



line is a course called "Modern Civilization" given in New College, an affiliated school of Teachers College, Columbia University. It was prepared for the use of students in schools of education. In giving the reasons for preparing the guide, the author explains that in late years there have been many changes in American life. The serious economic depression and difficult social problems have created a particular need for an understanding of recent social trends. "In this volume an attempt will be made to direct the prospective student of education in his study of recent social trends by pointing out the significance of life needs and problems" (p. 3).

Part 1 is given the title of Modern Civilization. The four unit headings are The Nature of Civilization and Social Change, The Problems of Economic Efficiency and Security, The Problem of Political Organization and Unity, and Modern Social Problems. Part 2 is named The Development of Modern Civilization. It is divided into units with the titles The Medieval Background of Modern Civilization, The Origins of American Culture in the Transitional Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, The Development of Modern Industrial Civilization, The Educational Problem of Transmitting the Social Heritage through the School, American Civilization in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries, and National Imperialism and the World War. Each unit is divided into a number of sections. There is an introduction for each section to orient the student in the various phases of the topics. This is followed by an outline, questions for study, and a list of readings.

The result is a comprehensive list of suggestions and viewpoints to initiate and stimulate the thinking of the prospective teacher of the younger members of the existing social order. It is intended to encourage independent thinking rather than to indoctrinate. The purpose is to reveal the manifold intricacies and interrelationships of the problems of business, government, and society which need to be solved. The author mentions that it too often happens that courses in political science, economics, sociology, and history are given without showing the application of the lessons learned to present day life. This may be true. Yet the student of contemporary civilization should have a thorough groundwork in those formal sciences in order that he may have the depth and thoroughness which marks the mature and trustworthy student. A course as outlined in this book is most helpful to the future teacher if it is used to supplement a careful and extensive study of history, government, and economics. Otherwise, the teacher's thinking may be superficial and shallow. There is a well selected and up to date bibliography which features the writings of the professors of the university where the course was inaugurated.

Teachers in service can use this book with profit.

There is a growing appreciation of the importance of the place of the teacher in the scheme of education. A book of this kind helps him to be cognizant of the character and problems of contemporary life and to have a better understanding of the traditions, prejudices, attitudes, and ideals of the people of the community in which he lives.

J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School  
Abington, Pennsylvania

*Democracy and the Supreme Court.* By Robert K. Carr. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1936. Pp. 142. \$1.50.

Professor Carr very frankly states that this little volume was written for the lay reader—the average citizen. The author takes full responsibility for the analysis of the six great cases he discusses and likewise the interpretation of the present situation.

The chapter titles are fascinating and attractive. The first chapter deals with the age old discussion of "The Supreme Law of the Land"—the Constitution. It is here pointed out that our "constitutional system rests upon the principal of *democracy*." The author next briefly explains the different types of powers listed in the Constitution. Chapter two asks the question of whether democracy should be practiced by states or by a strong national government. The question is answered by arguing that Congress is the representative of the people and the organ of a democratic government, and not the Supreme Court.

The author shows his extreme modernism on page 36 when he classifies the Constitution as "a rather old-fashioned essay on government."

Professor Carr uses the major portion of this book to discuss for the layman six great cases which have come before the Supreme Court in this era of New Dealism. These cases are: The Railway Pension Case, NRA, AAA, TVA, Guffey-Coal Act, and the New York Minimum Wage Case. He frankly presents these cases as the outgrowth of a fast working Congress trying to spread economic and social benefits to the masses.

The author really comes to his best in the last chapter "Remedies: Mostly Profane." To the person reading this chapter after February 5, 1937, it would seem either the author or President Roosevelt had anticipated the thoughts of the other concerning the future changes suggested for the Supreme Court. He believes that the court is not the guardian of the liberties of the individual. It is not Congress, but the Court is destroying our liberties. He suggests that final power to determine new legislative policies be placed "in the highest *democratic* tribunal in the land, Congress itself." He advocates a constitutional amendment to curb the powers of the court. Specific proposals are made which can likewise be found in

the special message of the President recently sent to Congress on the Judiciary.

This book may be recommended to the student, teacher of social studies and general reader. It is brief, explanatory, and specific. Evidence of accurate legal knowledge is shown throughout. One criticism seems necessary. The author is converted to the idea that the Supreme Court needs reorganization and revitalization. With this in mind he is ever critical and dubious of any close decision of the Court on cases so popular politically today.

HERMAN H. LAWRENCE

Union City High School  
Union City, Indiana

*Stephen Foster: Youth's Golden Gleam.* By Raymond Walters. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1936. Pp. 160. \$1.50.

This highly readable little volume emphasizes the contributions of Cincinnati in developing the genius of Stephen Collins Foster. The major portion of the work is devoted to a discussion of the three years Foster spent in Cincinnati as a clerk in the steamboat commission firm of Irwin and Foster. The future master of the folk-song began his bookkeeping duties as a boy of twenty; fortunately, the author tells us, the succeeding formative years were spent in the most cultured city of the then new West. The artistic advan-

tages offered the young man are enumerated and described: the appreciative group of people with whom Foster became acquainted, the air and manner of the old South discernable in Cincinnati, the fine caliber of amusements to be found there, the opportunities for first-hand contacts with river life and with pioneers pausing in the Queen City to outfit for the long westward trek. All are treated proportionately to their significance in developing the personality and genius of America's first professional composer. Besides sketching the background of his life in this period, much interpretative material is included concerning his songs. The chief contribution of the book to the general reader, however, does not lie in the sometimes monotonous analysis of the precise manner in which the songs were introduced, but rather in a pleasing picture of the three happiest years in Foster's life. A story of a young and independent man, working and relaxing in a stimulating environment, it contrasts favorably with the usual scenes presented of the composer's life.

The book is well-written, even though the style at times becomes strongly reminiscent of modern Chamber of Commerce pamphlets. Regardless of one's conception of culture, it is hard to visualize a "venerable city" enjoying a "cultural and social life comparable to the leading cities of the Atlantic seaboard" existing in the southwestern Ohio of 1850.

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A Boston or a Philadelphia had not yet sprouted in the wilderness. It has been said that the great composer, himself, represents a stage of culture in the making of the West.

Explanatory footnotes are included in the conventional places; source references are appended in a special section. There is an adequate index.

EDGAR B. CALE

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Aaron Burr in Literature: Books, Pamphlets, Periodicals, and Miscellany relating to Aaron Burr and his Leading Political Contemporaries.* By Samuel H. Wandell. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., Ltd.; New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc. 1936. Pp. xx, 302. Illustrated. \$4.50.

While preparing his *Aaron Burr: a Biography compiled from Rare, and in many Cases Unpublished, Sources* (New York and London, 1925), of which he was co-author with Meade Minnigerode, Mr. Wandell collected material for his present work. This "study in bibliography . . . includes biographical, historical and miscellaneous works, political pamphlets, general periodicals and fiction."

The book is divided into three parts: Part I deals with Books, Pamphlets and Miscellany (pp. 1-258); Part II deals with Magazines and Periodicals (pp. 259-269); Part III deals with Original Source Material (pp. 271-284). Within the different parts the arrangement is alphabetical. Besides the usual contents of a preface, the foreword contains a brief biographical sketch of Burr. There is an introduction by the author of *The Aaron Burr Conspiracy*, Walter F. McCaleb, in which the reader is acquainted with the word "jinn." Some data regarding Burr's legal career is given in an appendix (pp. 285-290). Accompanying the titles are extracts from various publications, critical and historical notes, biographical sketches of persons connected with Burr's career, and original source material.

Designed to produce interest on the part of the reader, the foregoing arrangement and type of contents is only partially successful. The arrangement is one that is easily made, but in bringing unrelated material together it becomes confusing. For a study of this type it might have been better to have classified the works. Most of the remarks about the books are descriptive rather than critical. Many books of slight value are included without comment as to their contents. The point of including so many biographical sketches is dubious in view of the availability of those in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. A number of errors in the titles were noticed both in spelling and typography.

The compiler has been assiduous in his search for

material on Burr. Much has appeared on Burr and his contemporaries since the publication of H. B. Tompkins' *Burr Bibliography* in 1892; consequently this new compilation should prove useful to the student of American history.

HENRY PUTNEY BEERS

The National Archives  
Washington, D.C.

*Pre-War Years, 1913-1917.* By Frederic L. Paxson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1936. Pp. 427. \$3.75.

The author of the Pulitzer Prize winning *History of the American Frontier* presents in this volume the story of the first administration of Woodrow Wilson. A political accident in an era of normal Republican preponderance, the election of Wilson nonetheless marks a milestone. A younger generation took control of affairs in 1913. "It was their business . . . to write off the losses, liquidate the national assets, and reconstruct the affairs of the United States upon a pattern more harmonious than it had been with respect to the heterogeneous population of the Nation, the closed frontier, the Industrial Revolution, and the birth of high finance." (p. 17). The reconstruction was notable. It embraced the establishment of the Federal Reserve System, a modification of protection through the Underwood Tariff and, by virtue of the sixteenth amendment, the first federal income tax which the courts would uphold, alarming in its day to men of substance however mild its schedules seem in retrospect. Labor was favored by specific exemption from the provisions of anti-trust legislation, and later, in 1916, the Adamson Act conferred the eight hour day upon railroad employees.

But the domestic record of Wilson's first administration, notable in itself, was to be eclipsed, in dramatic interest at least, by the course of events on the other side of the Atlantic. "The United States in 1913 had passed through the period in which nothing but lubrication was needed for its frictions. It was now surrounded by situations that needed sound policy instead of patchwork. But neither Congress nor the President, as they entered upon a new administration, was depressed by a fear that these situations would more than tax good humor." (p. 32.) "If the United States had better known the world it might have found it harder to believe that peace was normal and war abnormal." (p. 102.) As it was, the outbreak of the World War came as a shock. And it was soon doing violence to more than American idealism. Always difficult, the lot of a great commercial neutral had now become well-nigh impossible. This was the more true since Wilson, sincerely desirous of peace though he was, held out with all the tenacity of the academic theorist for American rights as he understood them—in accordance with a code of interna-



tional law inherited from the days of small professional armies, wagon transport, and wooden men-o'-war. An anachronism in the era of the railroad, the submarine, and the nation in arms, this code had not been adapted to modern conditions before the conflict began. Adaptations made by England and Germany in the heat of hostilities were perforce distorted by the exigencies of the hour, and were acceptable neither to enemy nor to neutral. British interference with American shipping, goods, and mails might have led to a break, but for the more gruesome submarine policy of Germany. The latter, coupled with the tactical ineptness of German diplomacy and the superior influence of pressure groups favorable to the Allies, and with a certain predilection for the Allied cause on the part of the President and those close to him, served ultimately to place the United States in the ranks of German's foes.

This and much more Professor Paxson tells us in his fascinating account of the teeming events of this critical period. But this is more than narrative history. The reader is treated to a keen analysis of American civilization as it existed a quarter century ago. The author makes frequent brief excursions into earlier history, which impart perspective without seriously interrupting the continuity of his account. A new generation has arisen since the time of the events here recorded, yet to many still young the reading of this

delightful and scholarly work will mean the reliving of a period the memory of which remains fresh.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

#### TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

*The Elements of English Constitutional History from the Earliest Times.* By F. C. Montague. London and New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1936. Pp. xiv, 270. \$2.40.

This useful little book was first published over forty years ago. It was designed to give an account of the growth of English institutions intelligible to those who are only beginning to read history. As such it has filled a real need, as its repeated printings demonstrate. It is now revised and brought up-to-date with the addition of a new chapter on "Constitutional Changes since 1901," by Dr. A. Aspinall. The fourteen chapters represent chronological divisions, more than half of the space being devoted to the period since 1603. Within the chapters the material is treated topically, paragraph headings in contrasting type rendering it quite easy to use. The author disclaims originality, but he has digested the standard works in the field and has presented their essentials in simplified form readily understandable by students

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who would find these monuments of scholarship too detailed and abstruse. The present edition appears to pay due attention to recent scholarship, as well as to recent events.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Unit Outlines in Geography.* By Rose M. Murphy. New York: College Entrance Book Company, Inc., 1936. Pp. ix, 182. Illustrated. Maps. Paper covers, 53 cents.

As its name implies this is an outline of geography intended chiefly for use in New York state. The author is a teacher and has studied examinations seriously. The book is intended chiefly to aid teachers who wish to drill pupils for the Regents' examinations. The introduction of Regents' into the lower grades will doubtless make this book very helpful. The material included is brief and factual. It is very much to the point and is ideal for drill purposes. It covers the subject of geography from the third to the seventh grades, so that while much of it would not be suitable for the secondary schools it would nevertheless be excellent for review purposes. The author takes up all the continents and includes questions, both objective and essay, at the close of each chapter. At the end of the book the examinations used for 1934, 1935, and 1936 are included. As the field is covered thoroughly, the book should interest social science teachers who have any contact with geography.

DANIEL ROSENBERGER

Phineas Davis High School  
York, Pennsylvania

### BOOK NOTES

In Claude G. Bowers' *Jefferson in Power* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1936. Pp. xix, 538. Illustrated. \$3.75) is presented the story of the eight dramatic years of Jefferson's two administrations. The book is a sequel to the earlier volume by the same author, *Jefferson and Hamilton*. The exciting events of this important period in our history are told with the author's usual literary skill and facile style. The work concludes with a chapter describing Jefferson's later years at Monticello. A list of books, manuscripts and other sources consulted is included, and also a complete index.

A biography of one of the foremost figures in European diplomacy during the first part of the twentieth century and one of the great personalities of modern times has recently appeared. The object of George Macaulay Trevelyan's *Grey of Fallodon* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 447. Illustrated. \$3.75) is to present the character of Viscount Grey as molded by circumstance, to-

gether with the story of his private as well as his public life. In his masterly style, the author, a friend and neighbor of Lord Grey, has written from his intimate knowledge of the English statesman and has drawn freely from his correspondence. According to the author, the most distinctive personal contribution of Lord Grey to British foreign policy during the World War was "his determination, even at some cost not to quarrel with America; not to be wholly unjust to neutrals in contraband policy; and to work, if possible, with America, for the foundation of a League of Nations after the return of peace." This portrait study will be of interest to the general reader as well as to students of history.

Brief, readable accounts of the lives of more than a thousand major and minor British authors of the nineteenth century are included in S. J. Kunitz and Howard Haycraft's (editors) *British Authors of the Nineteenth Century* (New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1936. Pp. 677. Illustrated. \$5.00). Preference has been given in general to writers of *belles lettres*, although the lives of the more eminent writers in all departments of knowledge have not been neglected. Following each sketch is a list of the principal works of the author with dates of original publications, and also materials suggested for further study. The volume is well edited and the biographies are concise. The work should be especially valuable for reference purposes.

The author of *We, the People* has produced another interesting book: Leo Huberman, *Man's Worldly Goods* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936. Pp. xii, 349. Illustrated. \$2.50). This work is "an attempt to explain history by economic theory, and economic theory by history." Written in an entertaining manner, especially for young people, this story of how man earned his living from the twelfth century to the present, traces the important changes that have occurred in the economic system. The contemporary illustrations, most of which have been taken from the Bettmann Collection, adds zest to the present presentation of economic facts. A bibliography and index are included.

Solid but compact information about particular phases of international issues is given in the publications of the World Peace Foundation. Number sixteen in the series of World Affairs Books is Kenneth W. Colegrove's *Militarism in Japan* (Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1936. Pp. 78. 75 cents cloth, 35 cents paper). The recent parliamentary crisis gives a particular timeliness to this authoritative exposition of the military tradition, the dual government, fascist movements, and the influence of the army on politics and policies in Japan. One cannot but wish,

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however, that the Foundation, with an eye to its laudable purpose of "educating the people," would experiment with methods of presenting material in a less austere academic guise.

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*The League of Nations* (Geneva: Secretariat of the League of Nations, 1936. Pp. 220. 50 cents), describes the aims, methods, and activity of the League. No better introduction to the subject could be asked for. It makes no pretence to be encyclopedic, and it is not a compendium of statistics and organizational detail, but it surveys the whole field of League activity, shows the essential difficulties and problems that have arisen in the process of promoting international coöperation. A clear, readable narrative style enhances its value. Without slighting such difficult problems as sanctions and collective security, the authors give strong support, by their comprehensive view of the multifarious activities of the League, for their observation that "little by little is laid that firm foundation of facts, realities, and international experience without which any attempt at building in common would be in vain." The book can be obtained from the World Peace Foundation.

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#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

*The Constitution of the United States with Amendments and the Declaration of Independence.* Bulletin of the United States Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission, House Office Building, Washington, D.C. Free.

A bulletin that contains explanatory statements, tables, and addresses given in 1935 and 1936 on the anniversary of the signing of the Constitution.

*Spain, Battleground of Democracy.* By Hubert C. Herring. The January 1, 1937 issue of *Social Action*, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. 10 cents.

A summary of the historical background of the Spanish civil war, including the underlying causes, the issues today, the class divisions in Spain, and the civil war itself. A brief bibliography is appended.

*Seven Guesses.* By Clarence Stratton. Published by the author, 1864 East Ninety-seventh Street, Cleveland, Ohio. 50 cents.

A folk play in four acts.

*An Exhibition of the Paintings of John Singleton Copley.* Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. 75 cents.

An illustrated catalogue, with a biographical sketch by H. B. Wehle.

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*Political Handbook of the World.* Edited by Walter H. Mallory. New York: Harper and Brothers for the Council on Foreign Relations, 1937. Pp. 207. \$2.50.

A comprehensive periodical survey of the parliaments, parties and press of the world.

*Business in the Middle Ages.* By Summerfield Baldwin. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. xi, 106. \$1.00.

A volume in the Berkshire Series in European History.

*An Atlas of Empire.* By J. F. Horrabin. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1937. Pp. xii, 141. Maps. \$1.50.

A series of seventy simple and striking maps, covering the five continents and the islands of the Pacific, and showing what colonies actually exist at the present time, together with their geographical and economic relations to the "mother" countries.

*Essays in History and Political Theory.* In honor of Charles Howard McIlwain. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936.

Essays presented to Charles H. McIlwain by his former students at Harvard and Radcliffe, on the occasion of the completion of his year of service as president of the American Historical Association.

*Practical Sociology.* By Leslie Day Zeleny. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1937. Pp. xxi, 461. \$3.00.

An introductory text to sociology that emphasizes the common affairs of everyday life.

*Education and the Class Struggle.* By Zalmer Sleisinger. New York: Covici Friede, 1937. \$3.00.

A critical examination of the liberal educator's program for social reconstruction.

*Modern Politics and Administration.* By Marshall E. Dimock. New York: American Book Company, 1937. Pp. xiii, 440. \$3.00.

A volume in the American Political Science Series that combines the functional analysis and consideration of the most important questions of political theory and philosophy.

*Educational Film Catalog.* Compiled by Dorothy E. Cook and Eva Cotter Rahbek-Smith. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1936. Pp. xi, 134. \$2.00.

A classified list of 1,175 non-theatrical films with a separate title and subject index.